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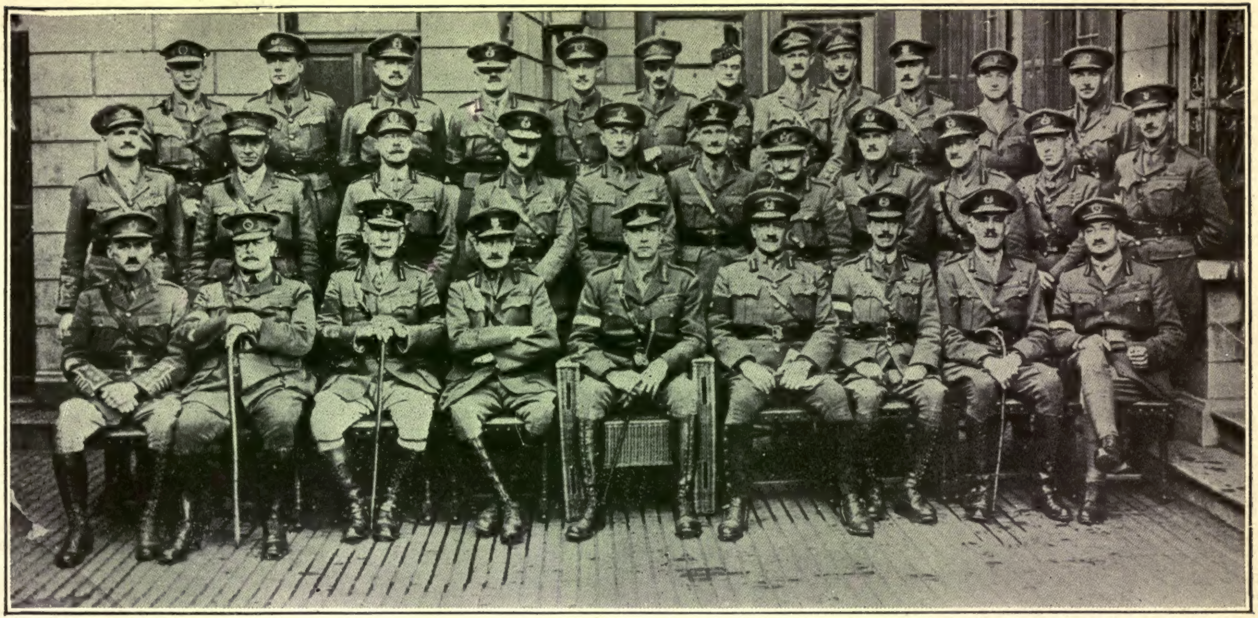

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GENERAL SIR ARTHUR CURRIE WITH H. R. H. PRINCE ARTHUR OF CONNAUGHT AND DIVISIONAL AND BRIGADIER GENERALS

Seated—Col. A. McPhail; Maj.-Gen. Lindsay; Maj.-Gen. A. C. MacDonnell; Prince Arthur of Connaught; Lieut.-Gen. Sir A. W. Currie; Maj.-Gen. Sir H. E. Burstall; Brig.-Gen. G. A. Farmer; Brig.-Gen. H. A. Panet; Brig.-Gen. Brutinel.

Middle Row—Lieut.-Col. J. A. MacDonald; Lieut.-Col. E. B. Anderson; Brig.-Gen. R. P. Clark; Brig.-Gen. V. W. Odlum; Brig.-Gen. J. H. McBrien; Brig.-Gen. J. A. Clark; Brig.-Gen. D. C. Draper; Brig.-Gen. D. M. Ormond; Brig.-Gen. Eric McQuaig; Brig.-Gen. W. A. Griesbach; Lieut.-Col. M. C. Festing.

Top Row—Brig.-Gen. J. S. Stewart; Brig.-Gen. W. O. H. Dodds; Brig.-Gen. Bell; Brig.-Gen. A. E. Ross; Brig.-Gen. T. C. Tremblay; Brig.-Gen. A. McNaughton; Lieut.-Col. C. Bent; Col. Hertzberg; ——————————; O. C. Engineers; Maj. Sinclair, A.-D.-C. to Prince Arthur; Capt. W. J. Shaughnessy, A.-D.-C. to Sir Arthur Currie; Lieut. Gordon, A.-D.-C.

CANADA'S SONS
IN THE WORLD WAR

A complete and authentic history
of the commanding part played by
Canada and the British Empire in the
World's Greatest War

By COL. GEORGE G. NASMITH, C.M.G.
CANADIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE
Author of "On the Fringe of the Great Fight"

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
GEN. SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE, K.C.B., K.C.M.G.
COMMANDER OF THE CANADIAN ARMY CORPS

IN TWO VOLUMES

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CHAPTER I

The Storming of Messines Ridge and Passchendaele

The battle of the Somme clearly demonstrated a number of things. Perhaps the most important of these was the fact that a general and uniform advance of an army along a broad front was an impossibility, for though a large part of the line might be broken, there were numerous fortresses, redoubts and strong points which would slow down or hold up the advance at those places. Consequently until those strong points had been overcome it was inadvisable for the rest of the line to advance owing to enfilading fire to which they would be subjected and the heavy toll of casualties exacted.

During the German retreat of February and March, 1917, the configuration of the French front at the western end had been altered. The section of front along the Aisne heights of some fifty miles, as we had discovered to our cost, was one of the strongest in Europe. The limestone plateau, intersected by deep ravines and interspersed with patches of forest, had been converted into an almost impregnable fortress. Huge caves, tunnels and barbed wire had made the Aisne front an exceedingly difficult front to attack.

The method adopted by General Nivelle, the hero of Verdun, was not that of the Somme. He decided that the whole of the Aisne heights would be crushed in at the same time by one bold assault from west, south and southeast; the Rheims heights on the north would be carried at the same time, while his centre would be launched through the gap into the plain of Laon.

So confident was Nivelle that his audacious plan would succeed that he told the French Government exactly what he meant to do and when it would be done. The forces to be employed were three times as large as those used by Haig in the Arras offensive, while the front to be attacked was the longest since the battle of the Marne.

The German front—the armies of the Crown Prince—was defended by 350,000 infantry and great masses of artillery and machine guns; an order had been issued that "The first line must be defended at all costs."

THE BATTLE OF THE AISNE

On April 6th the French preparations began and on April 15th every gun on the front was speaking.

At dawn on the 16th the French infantry began the offensive which lasted a little more than a month. There is no need in a history of this type to follow the varying fortunes of the French in this most difficult offensive. Their fighting was marvellous for every French battalion was trained to act as "shock" troops when so required; yet the troops that won the line did the holding of the line.

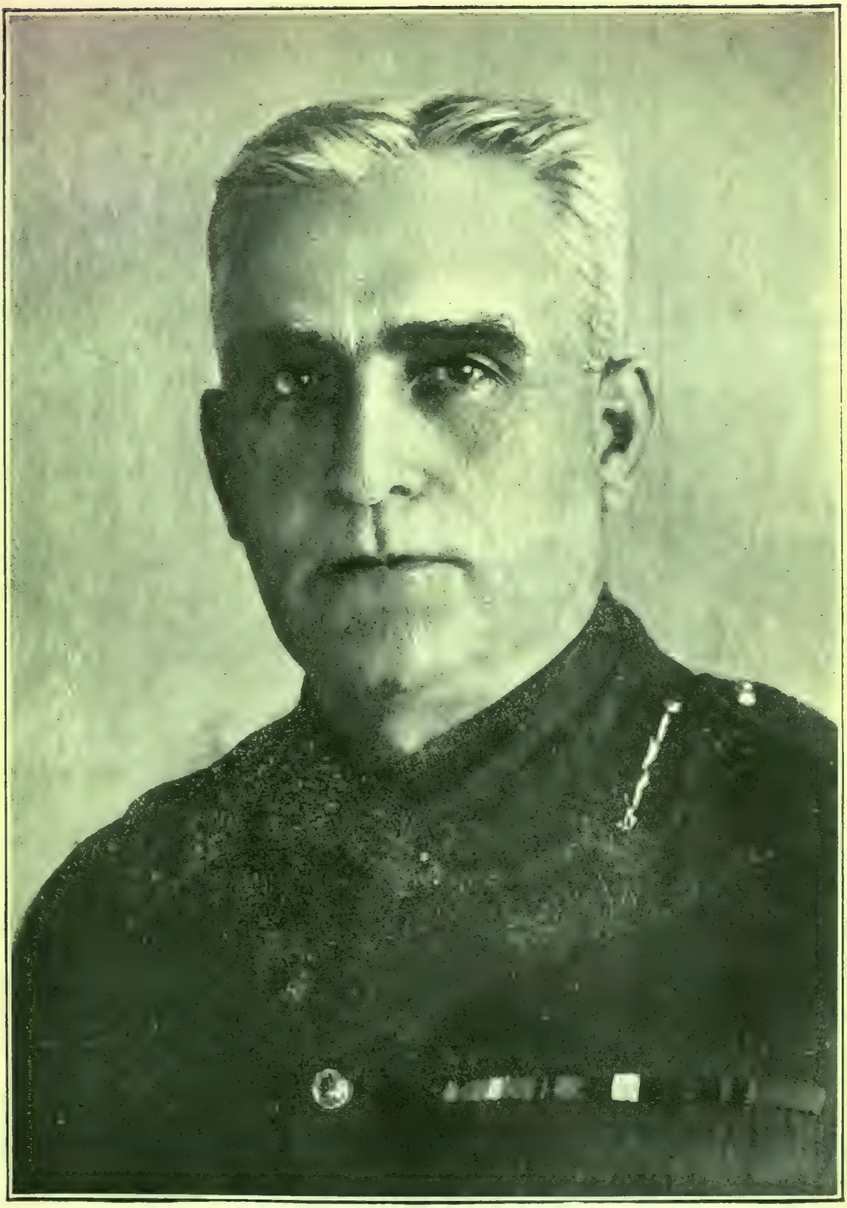
By April 28th between the Ailette and Suippe Rivers 20,780 prisoners, 175 guns, 119 trench mortars and 412 machine guns had been captured. The enemy had been driven from the banks of the Aisne from Soissons to Berry-au-Bac and all the spurs of the Aisne heights. The French also had won the centre of the tableland. But the dominating height of Craonne and the hills of Brimont and Fresnes had not been won. The road to Laon was still firmly barred, and though there had been a remarkable gain of ground the major strategy had failed.

As a consequence the French nation was greatly disappointed and public feeling called for the leadership of Petain and Foch, the chief exponents of the cautious tactics of the Somme. On May 15th Petain succeeded Nivelle as commander-in-chief of the French armies of the main battlefield, while Foch succeeded Petain as chief of the General Staff in Paris,—a recently revived position similar to that of Sir William Robertson in Great Britain.

The battle was continued for the purpose of gaining certain necessary high points, all of which were won by May 20th with the addition of 6,120 prisoners, 52 guns, 42 trench mortars and 103 machine guns.

Though the second battle of the Aisne did not achieve its aim of dislocating the southern pivot of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line, and did not endanger any vital enemy centre, it had used up many of the enemy's shock troops and had cost him positions which were necessary for his ultimate security.

The bad weather on the opening day, the breakdown of the



MAJOR-GENERAL SIR SAM HUGHES
Canadian Minister of Militia and Defence.

tanks and the failure to consider the probability that many strong points would hold up the general advance all played a part in preventing the complete success of an offensive bold and audacious in conception.

THE GERMAN RETREAT ON THE SOMME

After the close of the Somme offensive word began to filter through from Germany of a new fortified line in front of Cambrai and St. Quentin. Aerial observation confirmed the news and the construction of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line was followed with great interest by the allied staffs. It was clear enough that as soon as the weather proved satisfactory the Allies' armies would continue to blast their way forward—a process that must eventually result in a German disaster.

Accordingly von Hindenburg decided to fall back on a new prepared position which would render it necessary for the Allies to advance over ground that he intended to convert into a desert. It was possible that in such a retreat the Allies would be caught napping and a defeat inflicted upon them.

In the spring of 1917 the British intended to make an assault between the Scarpe and Ancre with the Third and Fifth armies, and then develop the main operation of the summer campaign of 1916. To supply material to perfect the communications the railway companies of Britain and Canada tore up tracks and forwarded the necessary rails to France.

On January 11, 1917, the first advance was made near Beaumont Hamel and thereafter several small advances prepared the way for more elaborate operations. As a result of the commanding positions gained the German front became untenable and the Germans began to fall back from positions north of the Albert-Bapaume road. Rapid pursuit was impossible on account of the nature of the roads, but constant touch was maintained with the enemy.

On February 26th the British took over from the French the ground as far south as Roye.

In the middle of March, after numerous attacks which steadily ate into the enemy defences, the enemy began a general retreat between the Aisne and Arras. The British artillery, brought forward with surprising speed, opened up against the enemy and dislocated his plans for an orderly and leisurely retreat. General pressure was now maintained along the whole allied front with the consequence that the advance spread from Arras to Soissons. There was no serious resistance and the British and French armies advanced steadily.

The area yielded by the German armies in retreat is now known as the Hindenburg Desert. Everything living was destroyed and everything inanimate blown up. The marks of the beast were everywhere apparent and the details published in the German press met with general German approbation. No words could describe the loathing inspired in the allied soldiers for these savage measures, but their anxiety to again come in contact with the perpetrators of such criminal work increased threefold. The Senate of France sent out this message to the world:

> The Senate denounces to the civilized world the criminal acts committed by the Germans in the regions of France occupied by them—crimes against private property and public buildings, honour, liberty, life; crimes perpetrated without the slightest excuse of military necessity and in systematic contempt for the International Convention of October, 1907, ratified by representatives of the German Empire. It holds up to universal execration the authors of these misdeeds, for which justice demands punishment.

During the advance the Allies had to feel their way forward in a country full of possible perils. Behind them there were prepared lines of trenches, new roads and bridges so that in case of retreat they would not be caught unprepared. By April the British were close to the new Hindenburg line near St. Quentin and a few days later the whole enemy front stiffened showing that the new line had been reached.

The enemy had retired some twenty miles, had lost few men or guns and had conducted a skilful retreat. His main purpose, to launch a counter-stroke with his large reserve force collected for that object, failed because of the rapid advance of the Allies. He had reached his famous line in safety but his permanent security depended on the retention of the pivotal points around Arras in the north and Laon in the south.

The next point to be attacked therefore was the pivot around Arras. In this offensive the Canadians, by the capture of Vimy Ridge, attained perhaps the most brilliant success of the war on the British front. (This is described in Chapter XX.)

BRITISH BREAK THE HINDENBURG LINE

The third British army occupied the Arras region. The old German lines near Lens were very strong, consisting of four series of trenches with the usual redoubts and switch lines, so that the defensive system was from two to five miles in depth. In case of an assault upon the Arras salient they had constructed a very powerful independent line running from Drocourt to the new Hindenburg line at Queant. This constituted the Drocourt-Queant switch which later on became so famous as one of the strongest defence lines in Europe, and was intended to protect Douai and Cambrai. Its loss would make the Hindenburg line untenable.

The key of the area was Vimy Ridge which dominated the British front on the Souchez. The front to be attacked reached from Givenchy-en-Gobelle to Croiselles, a distance of twelve miles. On April 4th the bombardment of the enemy positions began, and particular attention was paid to the enemy batteries many of which were put out of action by direct observation, and many by the new method of sound identification.

On Easter Monday, April 9th, the attack began and the British line swept forward. The Canadians quickly overran Vimy Ridge and by nine o'clock most of it was in our hands while the rest of the front attacked had been penetrated beyond the second line. By evening the enemy's third line had been broken into and in some places completely destroyed.

By April 11th the battle of Arras had slowed down until the guns could be brought forward. The attack had penetrated halfway to the Drocourt-Queant line and had carried two miles of the northern end of the Siegfried or Hindenburg line; 12,000 prisoners and 150 guns had been captured. The lesson of the Somme that the slow, laborious and painstaking tactics were the true ones was confirmed.

On April 12th and succeeding days further advances were made and a number of villages and towns were captured. From the 14th the Germans made frequent counter-attacks, which gained them no ground and lost them many men.

The French now began their attack in the Aisne, along the southern part of the Hindenburg line. From that time on the British were concerned with efforts designed to relieve the pressure on the French by pressing on toward Douai and Cambrai and gain a front favourable for future operations.

From the end of April on it was a matter of limited objectives. On May 3d the Canadians on the left broke through and took the village of Fresnoy, while the Australians on the right carried the front and support of Hindenburg lines at Bullecourt. Though the centre was advanced it was counter-attacked later and driven back, the Canadians and Australians holding firm in their positions.

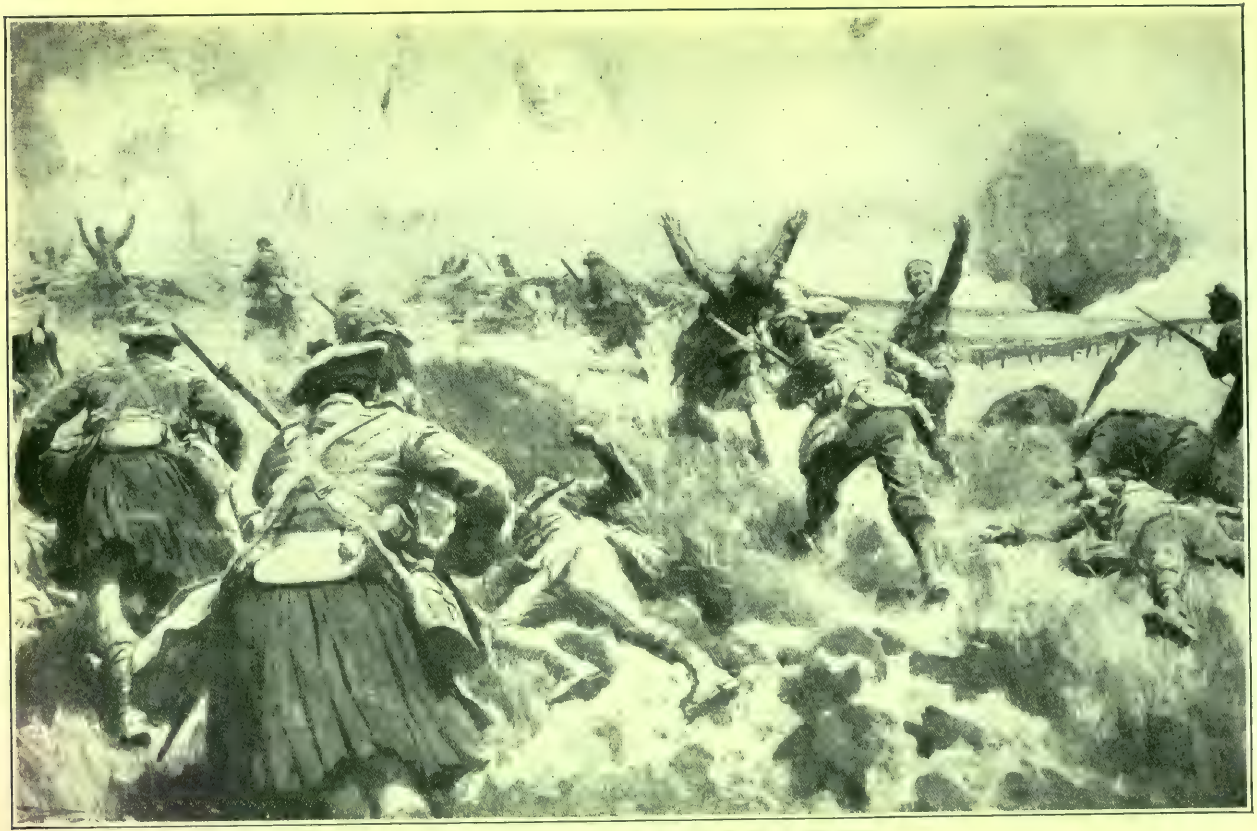
From May 8th to the 16th there was steady fighting for the key points, and our line was pushed forward in several places. Particularly noteworthy was the defence of Bullecourt by the Australians who with some assistance captured the two front positions of the Hindenburg line on a front of one mile.

By the end of May the battle of Arras had come to an end. It compared splendidly with any other British offensive, for in a month we had taken 20,000 prisoners, 257 guns, 227 trench mortars and 470 machine guns. The enemy had lost a wonderful key position in Vimy Ridge, about seven miles of his marvellous new Hindenburg line, and the important position of Bullecourt. The Germans had sustained 350,000 casualties and had been compelled to withdraw 74 of their 104 divisions in action for reorganization.

THE MESSINES-WYTSCHAETE RIDGE

Late in 1916 Sir Douglas Haig had devised the plan of driving in the German right flank along the Belgian coast, to destroy the worst of the enemy submarine bases, win back Belgian soil and destroy some of the German lines of communication. Since the conception of that plan the Russian disaster had enabled the Germans to greatly strengthen the western front with men, guns and ammunition, while the Arras offensive had used up a considerable number of our reserves.

The great general and simultaneous offensive then agreed upon, as we have seen, did not materialize. The combined British and French spring offensive was launched before Italy was prepared. Russia had failed to give the help expected and the general result of the dislocation of the allied plan enabled the Central Powers to make a far better defence than they could otherwise have done by despatching troops from one front to another as occasion required.



"THE LADIES FROM HELL" IN ACTION

From a sketch made near Hooge in July, 1915, where the Liverpool Scottish and other regiments counter-attacked after a German liquid-fire attack. The lads wi' the kilts were styled by the Boches "the Ladies from Hell."

Nevertheless it was decided to carry out the offensive as planned in Flanders, the first objective aimed at being the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge. Until the demands of the Arras operation had been satisfied neither material nor labour was available in sufficient quantity. Since the previous autumn preparations had been under way and as soon as the Arras battle had died away roads, railroads, water-pipe lines and other works were carried forward with great rapidity.

The Messines-Wytschaete Ridge, as it appeared to me from the British line at Mount Kemmel, was a low slope seamed with trenches and showing the remains of splintered woods. The ruins of Wytschaete on the crest of the slope shone white in the sun, while the spire of a ruined church indicated the location of Messines. Wytschaete lay opposite Kemmel Hill and was approximately half way between Messines, which the Canadian artillery had battered so thoroughly from Ploegsteert, and St. Eloi, where the Second Canadian division had fought so heroically in the battle of the Craters. In front of those three points the British lines formed a great sweeping semicircle; the objective contemplated the flattening out of this salient. This meant a penetration of about two and a half miles in the centre of the salient to the village of Oostaverne. To capture this meant that the whole ridge would fall to us and our line would be shortened from about ten to six miles.

For nearly two years along the ridge a battle had been going on underground,—a battle of miners. Some of the greatest mining experts in the world were engaged in supervising the tunnels being driven under the enemy lines. The enemy was also busily engaged counter-mining and a constant underground struggle was waged in which each combatant exerted his utmost endeavours to blow in the other's galleries and render his operations useless. In all the British had constructed five miles of underground galleries along the ridge front and had charged them with a million pounds of the high explosive ammonal. Nineteen mines out of the twenty-four constructed were ready for our attack on June 6th.

At dawn on June 7th the British bombardment of the German lines had ceased. Bombing planes hummed through the lightening sky and our sausage balloons had just gone up when with a shock like a terrible earthquake the nineteen mines blew up. To the onlooker they resembled huge volcanoes in violent eruption, while the great throbbing of the concussion seemed to fill the whole earth.

As the dust and smoke hung suspended against the rising sun every British gun opened up and the British waves of assault poured up the enemy slopes. Passing through a region smashed and tortured beyond recognition our infantry swarmed into the enemy positions capturing them all along the line. The Australians advancing on the south captured the southern slopes of the Messines Ridge; the New Zealanders captured Messines village. Farther north the Ulster division swept over the crest between Messines and Wytschaete capturing the latter place with the aid of the South of Ireland division (16th). North of this again Welsh and English divisions fought through to Oostaverne itself. On the extreme left of the line attacked, the Tenth corps, after some desperate fighting around the White Chateau and Ravine Wood, gained all its objectives and safeguarded the flank. Before dark the whole position was firmly in the hands of the British.

Like the battle of Vimy Ridge this battle had been most carefully planned and brilliantly carried through. In a single day General Sir Herbert Plumer had, on a front of ten miles, carried the ridges which the enemy had considered impregnable, had wiped out the salient and had captured 7,200 prisoners, 67 guns, 294 machine guns and 94 trench mortars.

To the Canadian who knew that front thoroughly from Ploegsteert Woods to the Ypres salient the capture of the Messines Ridge caused a great deal of satisfaction. For many long months, particularly in the spring of 1916, the Canadians had been compelled to travel around the salient at night like stray cats. Many a time when crossing the fields far from the ridge, single men had been sniped at with field guns. The view of our old positions from the ridge was so complete that British officers were no longer surprised that our transport and troops should have been so frequently shelled, or our movements so thoroughly observed.

LENS AND HILL 70

The capture of the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge was merely the prelude to the main offensive of breaking out through the Ypres salient to the coast.

Meanwhile in the south the third British army, which included the Canadian corps, in order to attract attention from the north carried out a series of minor offensives around Arras and Lens.

Early in May local attacks had been made by Canadian troops in the neighbourhood of Souchez River, which formed the prelude to a long-sustained series of minor operations directed against the defence of Lens. The capture of Vimy Ridge by the Canadians had made these attacks possible and had opened up the road to many long-cherished projects. The capture of Lens was an objective with a view to an attack on Lille from the south. On June 26th the Canadians took La Coulotte and by the morning of June 28th had reached the outskirts of Avion.

On June 28th a mock attack was made on a twelve-mile front from Gavrelle to Hulluch accompanied by discharges of gas, smoke and thermit. At the same time real attacks were made on a 2,000-yard front opposite Oppy and by Canadian and North Midland troops on a two and a half mile front astride the Souchez River with complete success.

It will be remembered that the Highlanders of the Fifteenth Scottish division had, during the battle of Loos, swarmed across Hill 70 and penetrated as far as the Cité St. Auguste, a mining suburb of Lens. The Hill was then lost, but on August 15th at 4.25 A. M., the Canadians of the First and Second divisions swept over Hill 70 and across the Lens-La Bassee road, capturing the suburbs of Cité St. Laurent, and Cité St. Emile. North of it they won the Bois Rase and the western half of the Bois Hugo. Counter-attacks by local German reserves and a division of the German guard were caught in the open by Canadian rifle and machine-gun fire and withered away.

The Canadian attack was pushed still closer home on August 21st by the Second and Fourth Canadian divisions. The fighting was very severe, indeed it is said to have been the severest that Canadian troops had ever experienced. The Canadian corps lost 9,000 men in the battle of Lens and Hill 70.

THE BATTLE OF PASSCHENDAELE

The offensive known as the third battle of Ypres had for various reasons been unavoidably postponed and it was not till the end of July that the attack was begun. The visibility was bad and though the aerial offensive had been launched and numerous gas attacks and raids carried out to the north of the Lys, conditions for the actual launching of the offensive did not prove suitable till July 31st.

The front to be attacked extended from the Lys River opposite Doulemont to Steenstraat, a distance of fifteen miles. The main blow was to be delivered by the fifth army on a front of seven and a half miles from the Zillebeke-Zandvoorde road to Boesinghe. The second army was to increase the area captured and the French on the left of the Fifth British army were to advance and protect their flank from attacks from the north. The advance was to be over a difficult country in a series of bounds as limited by the configuration of the ground and the enemy's defences.

On July 31st the main offensive was launched and rapid progress made. All objectives north of St. Julien were reached, but after the capture of the first line hard fighting was experienced east of Ypres where the Menin Road crossed the Wytschaete-Messines Ridge and formed the key to the enemy's position. On the first day practically the whole of the crest of the ridge had been gained and the first German system of defence south of Westhoek carried. The second line of defence had been captured as far as St. Julien while the French to the British left had kept step with us. The attack of the second army had met with complete success. Over 6,100 prisoners and 25 guns were taken on the first day.

No one who has not spent a year in Flanders can possibly conceive of the conditions brought about by rainy weather. The heavy clay soil holds the rain and becomes tenacious like glue. The creeks and ditches overflow and become stretches of bog and to leave the beaten roads spells disaster to man or beast.

During the first afternoon of the battle the rain began and for four days continued without cessation. To quote from Sir Douglas Haig's despatch:

> The low-lying, clayey soil, torn by shells and sodden with rain, turned to a succession of vast muddy pools. The valleys of the choked and overflowing streams were speedily transformed into long stretches of bog, impassable except by a few well-defined tracks, which became marks for the enemy's artillery. To leave these tracks was to risk death by drowning, and in the course of subsequent fighting on several occasions both men and pack animals were lost in this way. In these conditions operations of any magnitude became impossible, and the resumption of our

offensive was necessarily postponed until a period of fine weather should allow the ground to recover.

The unavoidable delay was most valuable to the enemy, enabling him to recover from our first attack and to bring up re-enforcements.

Though the troops endured terrible hardships owing to the weather, the ground gained was consolidated in spite of violent counter-attacks. On August 3d St. Julien, a name associated forever with the glorious defence of the First Canadian division in the second battle of Ypres, was taken and a week later Westhoek fell to English troops.

On August 16th the second British attack was launched north and east of Ypres and on the left gained their final objective in the capture of the Langemarck-Gheluveldt Line. In the centre obstinate enemy resistance was met. Owing to the impossibility of constructing deep trenches and dugouts because of the water-logged ground the enemy, under General Von Arnim, had resorted to a new type of defence in "pill boxes." These field forts built of steel and concrete several feet thick were distributed in depth, were heavily armed with machine guns and protected by heavy lacings of barbed wire. These forts presented too small a mark for direct hits and formed a very serious obstacle to our advance. The enemy also had adopted a system of elastic defence in which the forward lines were only lightly held while heavy forces were kept in reserve. On account of the weather airplane observation was practically impossible so that little help from artillery during enemy counter-attacks was available. As a consequence our troops were gradually compelled to fall back along the Wieltze-Passchendaele Road, in spite of which the day closed as a decided success for the Allies. Thirty guns and 2,000 prisoners were taken.

Nevertheless the new tactics of the enemy, undoubtedly successful in defence, compelled us to modify our methods of offence and new methods were worked out to overcome them. The method employed was to put down a heavy barrage to cover each "pill box" and stun or poison the inmates with the concussion and fumes of the shell bursts. Another successful method consisted in lengthening the field gun barrage on both sides of the "pill box," thereby enabling the advancing troops to get around to its unprotected rear and bomb out the hives.

At the beginning of September the weather improved and on September 20th Australian, English, Scottish and South African troops attacked on an eight-mile front, with a thoroughness which won the whole of the important high ground crossed by the Menin Road and along the rest of the sector attacked. Over 3,000 prisoners were captured by us. Heavy counter-attacks were broken down by our troops and the position consolidated.

On September 26th a further attack on a six-mile front resulted in the capture of Polygon Wood by the Australians and Zonnebeke by English troops. Seven heavy attacks launched against us were repulsed, and on September 30th several other attacks against our lines, many of them with flaming liquids, broke down.

On October 4th, the day for which the next stage had been planned, a gale with heavy rains broke over the front. On that day occurred a unique thing, for at 6 A. M. both the British and German troops left their trenches to assault at the same time, with the result that the enemy was hopelessly outclassed at close quarters and was driven back. By noon every objective was taken, including the Gravenstafel Ridge and village taken by the New Zealanders, and Noordemhoek and Reutel captured by the British. Five thousand prisoners were taken on that day and counter-attacks all failed; 9,000 yards of the final ridge had been won, while possession of the Gravenstafel spur protected the northern flank. The elastic system of defence had been conquered.

Two months of hard fighting under terrible weather had resulted in achieving only what had been planned for the first two weeks. The weather, worse than it had been for many years, nullified our successes because they could not be followed up and taken advantage of. The hope of clearing the enemy out of his Flemish bases had gone, for the objectives lay far beyond the Passchendaele Ridge. In view of the situation it only remained to capture the last of our limited objectives—the Passchendaele Ridge—to secure our own position for the winter.

The last stage of the third battle of Ypres, commonly called by Canadians the battle of Passchendaele, was probably the muddiest and most difficult operation ever carried out. On October 9th our infantry moved forward under dripping skies and in the north won all their objectives by noon, seizing the outskirts of Houthulst Forest and Poelcapelle. In the centre British territorials and Australians moved forward towards Passchendaele also taking their objectives.

The rain, falling in sheets, prevented further serious offensives, though 1,000 prisoners were taken at Houthulst Forest. The misery of our fighting men now almost surpassed endurance. The country was one great bog and the shell holes kept brim full by the ceaseless downpour were a constant source of danger to the unwary. Wounded men frequently were drowned in the mud and water. Men loaded with packs falling into shell holes were unable to crawl out without assistance and, if none was forthcoming, perished. Men's feet sank deep into the treacherous clay and progress could be made only by the most heroic efforts.

CANADIANS CAPTURE PASSCHENDAELE

Further serious advance had now become almost impossible under such conditions, but Sir Douglas Haig wished to carry on for two weeks longer in view of an offensive being prepared further south. Accordingly the Canadian Corps was asked for and sent northward to the salient so abhorred by all old Canadian soldiers, the attack about Lens being temporarily postponed.

On October 18th, General Sir Arthur Currie took over the command of the Passchendaele front and on the 22d the New Zealand and Third Australian divisions in the trenches in front of Passchendaele were relieved by the Third and Fourth Canadian divisions. The operations by the Canadian Corps were carried out in four distinct phases, October 16th and 30th by the Third and Fourth divisions, and November 6th and 11th by the First and Second divisions.

During the first few days Sir Arthur Currie had numerous plank roads built of the kind which had proved so useful in other Canadian operations. Though carried on under heavy shell fire this vital work was continued and completed at the necessary cost of life and equipment. The light railway was also extended and then over these roads huge quantities of shells and all kinds of material were rushed into the advanced areas.

Though unable to build proper gun emplacements on account of the mud, and though actually inferior to the Germans in guns, our artillery, fighting in the open and constantly exposed to the fumes of gas shells, particularly mustard gas, did magnificent work.

Back of the lines for fifteen miles enemy aeroplanes nightly bombed everything that seemed to them to be of importance. Roads along which our transport had to pass were searched with shrapnel, high explosives and gas shells, while a constant rain of shells poured upon the fields behind the front. The mud fortunately allowed these shells to bury themselves deeply before they exploded so that in blowing upward their effect was largely nullified.

The German position to be taken for the depth of a mile or more consisted of a series of ridges and spurs and was very strong. The numerous little concrete forts frequently had no surface exits, being entered through tunnels which opened to the surface scores of yards away. Consequently the troops within could operate their machine guns with every advantage.

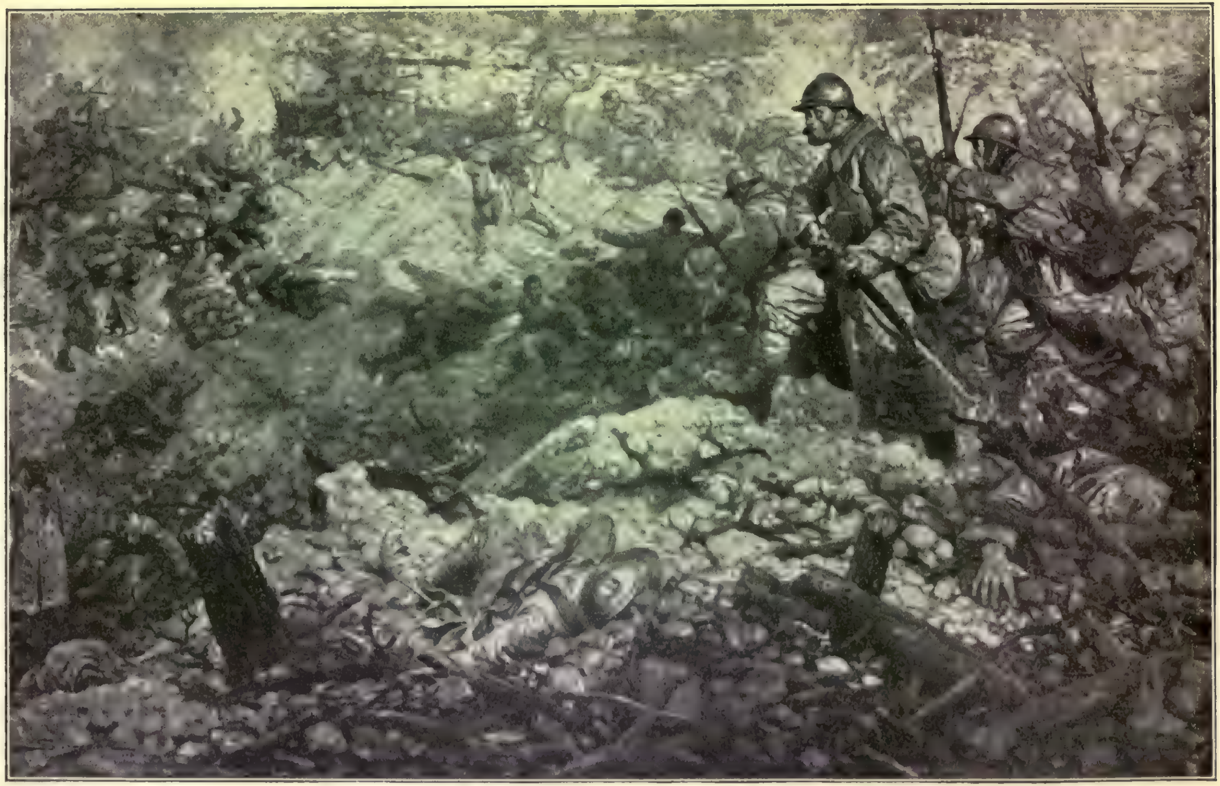
It must also be realized that the Germans were now fighting with renewed vigor. The Russian and Italian defeats had inspired a new spirit of confidence in not only the army but the whole German nation. Consequently the German soldier fought better than he had for some time and put up a vigorous defence.

Between the Gravenstafel spur and the Bellevue spur which runs westward from Passchendaele is a little valley through which flows a small creek called the Ravebeek. Pouring through this valley at dawn on October 26th the Canadians captured the hill south of Passchendaele village.

The Canadians had failed to take the spur and were back in their original trenches when Lieutenant Shankland, who had managed with fifty men to occupy a commanding point on the top of the ridge, came back for re-enforcements. Troops were immediately sent to his assistance with the result that after bitter fighting Bellevue spur was taken.

By evening the Canadians held all of their objectives.

On October 30th at 5.50 A. M. the Canadians attacked from the end of the Ravebeek Valley and the crest of the ridge, being supported on the north by the advance of the London Territorials and Royal Naval division. At 10 A. M. the rain began once more and the Canadians met some of the strongest resistance in the Fifth and Eleventh Bavarian divisions that they had ever encountered. South of the village the Twelfth Canadian brigade won Crest Farm, and the spur west of the village, holding them against five counter-attacks. They also forced their way into Passchen-



A HAND-TO-HAND STRUGGLE FOR A MINE CRATER

Amid the gigantic artillery duels for the possession of Verdun, many terrific hand-to-hand encounters took place. Such a struggle is shown here. In the center of the picture a bombing party assaults a German barricade. Deep down in the blasted earth German soldiers, torn, wounded and bewildered, await captivity or death.

daele itself, their front then forming a sharp salient because the progress of the Territorial and Naval divisions had been held up by the nature of the ground.

On Tuesday, November 6th, at 6 A. M., the Canadians of the First and Second divisions swept forward capturing the whole of Passchendaele and the Goudberg spur to the north. The final attack on November 10th increased their gains and gave them possession of all the high ground northeast of Passchendaele, leaving the town itself well within the Canadian lines.

During a Canadian advance one regiment was held up by machine-gun fire from a "pill box" which, perched on a slight elevation, commanded all the ground before it. Suddenly a young soldier dashed forward from the line into a shell hole. Immediately the machine guns were turned upon him and the battalion seized the opportunity to advance. The machine guns were again turned upon the battalion when the soldier dashed forward to another shell hole. By such means dashing from hole to hole he finally got to the rear of the "pill box" and hurling in bombs, cleaned out the garrison. For this action which allowed the whole battalion to advance, Thos. Holmes of Owen Sound, Ontario, eighteen years of age, and the youngest soldier ever given the award, was granted the Victoria Cross, and received on his return to Canada a welcome such as has seldom been accorded to any hero.

Searching for the wounded the stretcher bearers, fearless of death, carried on their work during the battle and kept a steady stream of casualties flowing through the dressing stations, which were close up under shell fire. The Padres and Y. M. C. A. officers worked side by side helping the doctors and providing hot cocoa and biscuits to the stretcher bearers and wounded. Back a little farther the light trolleys and ambulances carried away to the field ambulances the men who, as they themselves expressed it, were lucky enough to be hit. The battle of Passchendaele was destined to be the most terrible and tragic battle that the Canadian Corps was to experience.

All the vital part of the main ridge of West Flanders was now in British hands and we dominated the flats towards Roulers and Thourout. The terrible salient of Ypres, where for three years the Allies had been at the mercy of German artillery, had been wiped out. The losses of the Canadian Corps in this battle were heavy, the killed, wounded and missing amounting to 14,867 men. The Canadians took 1,200 prisoners. To Canada fell the crowning victory of the third battle of Ypres; the first gas attack of April 22d, 1915, against the First Canadian division, when only two dauntless brigades of infantry stood between the enemy and the channel, had been amply avenged.

The capture of Passchendaele brought to a close the third battle of Ypres. The seas of Flemish mud had proved to be our greatest enemy and our losses, largely because of the rain and its consequences, were heavy. Seventy-eight German divisions had been drawn into the fray, but Germany had many new re-enforcements in the many divisions drawn from the Russian front. In the offensive we captured 24,000 prisoners, 74 guns, 194 machine guns and 138 trench mortars.

CANADIANS IN WINTER 1917–18

After the necessary reorganization the Canadian Corps returned to the Lens front and continued the envelopment of that city until the great German offensive of March, 1918.

The word had gone out that there were to be no further advances by the allied armies. The Germans on the western front had now been enormously strengthened by the transfer of troops and guns from the Russian front and the deflection of ammunition from the eastern theatre.

The year had not gone well for the Allies in spite of numerous victories. The battles of Arras, Vimy, Messines and Flanders or third battle of Ypres had been won by the British. The French had also won the victories of Moronvilliers, Verdun and Malmaison. Throughout the year, except when weather conditions permitted, a continuous offensive had been waged by the British, who had now assumed the greater share of the burden. One hundred and thirty-one German divisions had been engaged and defeated by less than half that number of British divisions. From April 9th, excluding the Cambrai battle, we had captured 57,696 prisoners including 1,290 officers. In the same period we had also taken 393 guns of which 109 were heavies, 561 trench mortars and 1,976 machine guns. In the battle of Cambrai later on 11,100 prisoners and 145 guns were taken.

The British armies in the year had taken 125,000 prisoners but had suffered heavily. During the year of 1917 they had sustained 800,000 casualties, which was sufficient evidence of the part Britain was playing. The new levies had not come along as rapidly as they were needed and many of them were insufficiently trained. Furthermore, the French in spite of the figures quoted, did not believe that Great Britain was pulling herfull weight, with the result that the newspaper campaign conducted in Paris compelled the British to further extend their line from St. Quentin to La Fere on the Oise.

So it was that a new situation had come about. The enemy, again confident in his superiority on the western front and with the dreaded Russian giant out of the way, no longer talked of a peace except that which he would bring about through a victory in the field.

THE ITALIAN FRONT

By June 3d the Austrian offensive in the Trentino had practically exhausted itself and on June 16th the Italian counter-offensive began. In two days the Austrians had lost half the territory they had gained in their six weeks' offensive at the cost of 130,000 men. Austria had to count the Trentino offensive a failure; it had not attained its objectives of the Venetian plains and the Isonzo railway communications; it had weakened her resistance to the Russian attack, and, most important of all, it had taught the Italian army the business of warfare.

During the previous winter Italy had collected much ammunition and many guns, while the army staff had been busily engaged in planning the details of an offensive in the Isonzo region. This was one of the most difficult battlefields of Europe. The Italian right wing lay along the western edge of the Carso,—that barren, rocky waterless plain of burning heat in the daytime and icy cold at night. To the north of the Carso was Mont San Michele which had hitherto defied all efforts of the Italians to take. In the assault in the Isonzo which contemplated the capture of Gorizia, General Cadorna intended to make a feint against the opposite end of the Carso position, in order to attract the Austrian reserves. Then when the main enemy strength had been gathered in that position Cadorna intended to strike with his chief forces against Gorizia on the San Michele front.

CADORNA ENTERS GORIZIA

The feint attack was made on August 4th and achieved the purpose intended, while the real attack was launched on August 6th along the front from Sabotino to San Michele. The fighting of the Italians against positions which might well be considered impregnable was brilliant and position after position fell to them. On August 9th Gorizia was entered by Cadorna, thus ending the first stage of the offensive.

Trieste was the secondary objective of the Italians and on August 10th an advance began on the Vallone which proceeded until August 15th when it came to a standstill.

By this offensive the Italians had won Gorizia and the Gorizia plain; the Austrians had been compelled to lengthen their line, the Isonzo defensive system had gone and the road to Trieste opened up. The Austrians had suffered 80,000 casualties and lost 19,000 prisoners, 30 heavy guns, 62 pieces of trench artillery and 92 machine guns.

Italy was transported with joy and her new enthusiasm for the war solidified the nation as nothing else had ever done. Though she had never declared war on Germany, Italy's position had now become not only anomalous but ridiculous. Germany had supplied Austria, Italy's chief enemy, with guns, munitions and material, while it was largely German soldiers and sailors who directed every operation against the Italian nation. The new Italian national spirit demanded that their enemy should be openly recognized and on August 28th Italy announced a state of war to exist with Germany.

The Carso was to be the next theatre and after a month's preparation a great bombardment of the Austrian trenches began and on September 15th the attack was launched. In the first four days 5,000 prisoners were taken but the Italians were halted. The Austrian lines were again bombarded and on October 10th, when the infantry advanced, 5,000 more prisoners were taken the first day. The tempestuous weather with continuous rains and constant mists made the offensive difficult from the very first in that rocky, mountainous region; after certain high ground, which menaced the enemy centre, had been captured together with numerous prisoners and batteries, the winter closed in postponing any further offensive till spring.

During the winter months great preparations were made by the Italians, while the Austrians also made strenuous efforts to improve their positions.

On May 12th the Italians began a bombardment of the Austrian front from Tolmino to the sea, in which British heavy artillery assisted. The great effort was made from Plava to Salcano. The battle continued until May 22d, the Italian armies under Cadorna proving successful everywhere.

On May 23d between the Adriatic and the Carso a new attack, assisted by swarms of aeroplanes, began which captured the first and second enemy positions and netted 9,000 prisoners. The Italians, however, had suffered greatly and by the end of the month their effort had ceased. Seventeen thousand prisoners were taken and twenty guns captured, while room for freer movement had been gained.

On June 1st the Austrians launched a counter-offensive upon Hill 174 at Tivoli, the crest of Vodice and other points. After varying fortunes the line settled down again with the loss to the Italians of one-third of a mile to a mile on a three-mile front.

This battle, fought among the intricate mountains and valleys of the Trentino and Cadore regions, presented difficulties which seemed insurmountable. The suffering endured by the heroic Italian armies and the numberless wonderful deeds accomplished by individual soldiers will probably only be found properly written up in Italian literature and romance. The western Allies little understood the tremendous natural difficulties of the campaign which their Italian ally was undertaking, and that a gain of a hundred yards often meant more in that region than miles of territory elsewhere. When the battle ceased the army of Cadorna, everywhere successful, had won its way to a position from which the last barriers between Italy and the great Austrian seaport of Trieste were within sight.

SIR JULIAN BYNG'S HISTORIC ATTACK AT CAMBRAI

On November 6th, with the capture of Passchendaele by the Canadians, the long, bitter and costly struggle to break through the Ypres salient to the coast drew to a close. The weather on most of the western British front made further action difficult, but the Italian struggle on the Piave River demanded the relief of an allied diversion. The most suitable ground for this Sir Douglas Haig found in the rolling country opposite the Hindenburg line in front of Havrincourt Wood and eight miles from Cambrai. Tanks, which could not be employed in the mud of the Ypres salient, could be used here with advantage. The key position to be taken was Bourlon Wood which, if captured and our flank protected, would enable us to dominate the enemy position in the southern part of the Drocourt-Queant line.

The third army under Sir Julian Byng, former commanding officer of the Canadian Corps, was to attack and for this purpose flotillas of tanks were assembled under every bit of cover, particularly in Havrincourt Wood. On November 20th a single shot gave the signal and from the Bapaume Road to Gonnelieu a long row of tanks crawled forward while a dense smoke barrage blinded the enemy. While every British gun rained shells into the German lines the six attacking divisions moved leisurely forward, passing through the lanes rolled out in the wire. Machine-gun nests were quickly wiped out, the main Hindenburg line taken and by 10.30 the reserve line had gone and British troops followed by cavalry were advancing to their objectives, except at three vital points not captured. It is of interest to note in passing that the important bridge at Masnieres having been destroyed, a temporary one was thrown across over which one squadron of the Fort Garry Horse of General Seely's Canadian brigade of the Fifth Cavalry division passed. Breaking through the Beaurevoir-Masnieres line the Fort Garrys charged and captured a German battery, cut up a body of three hundred German infantry and retired only when most of their horses had been killed or wounded. Had all the cavalry been able to get across, since there was little between them and Cambrai, the battle might have ended very differently.

On November 22d the positions necessary for a defensive flank, such as Rumilly, Crevecoeur and Bourlon Wood, had not been won and it was necessary to struggle forward or fall back. Meanwhile the Germans were bringing up reserves, something which Sir Douglas Haig could no longer obtain from his army, weakened by a season's continuous fighting.

By November 27th we had taken 10,500 prisoners and 142 guns while a salient ten miles wide and six miles deep had been hewn out of the enemy's front, but the flanks were not secure.

It was very necessary that the situation for the Germans should be retrieved in order to hold the confidence of the nation for the greater events impending and sixteen fresh German divisions were brought to the area. Ludendorff planned the great counter-attack according to his new tactics using twenty-four divisions for the purpose.

On November 30th gas shells were rained on the British positions and the enemy advancing through the mist overwhelmed our positions. The first British guns lost since the second battle of Ypres were taken at La Vacquerie. It was a serious affair, for the position in front of the salient was turned in flank and rear and was saved only by the gallant Twenty-ninth division. Many units were isolated and died fighting to a man. In one case two London battalions counter-attacked using cooks, signallers, orderlies and runners. In other cases in posts regained a couple of days later the British were found almost buried among German bodies. By December 3d the enemy's impetus was exhausted and on December 4th to 7th Sir Douglas Haig skillfully shortened his line so that the new front ran along the old Siegfried reserve line in the north, and west of Gonnelieu and Villers Guislain on the south, rejoining the old line at Vendhuille.

By the end of the winter the Cambrai front had settled down to its normal condition.

CHAPTER II

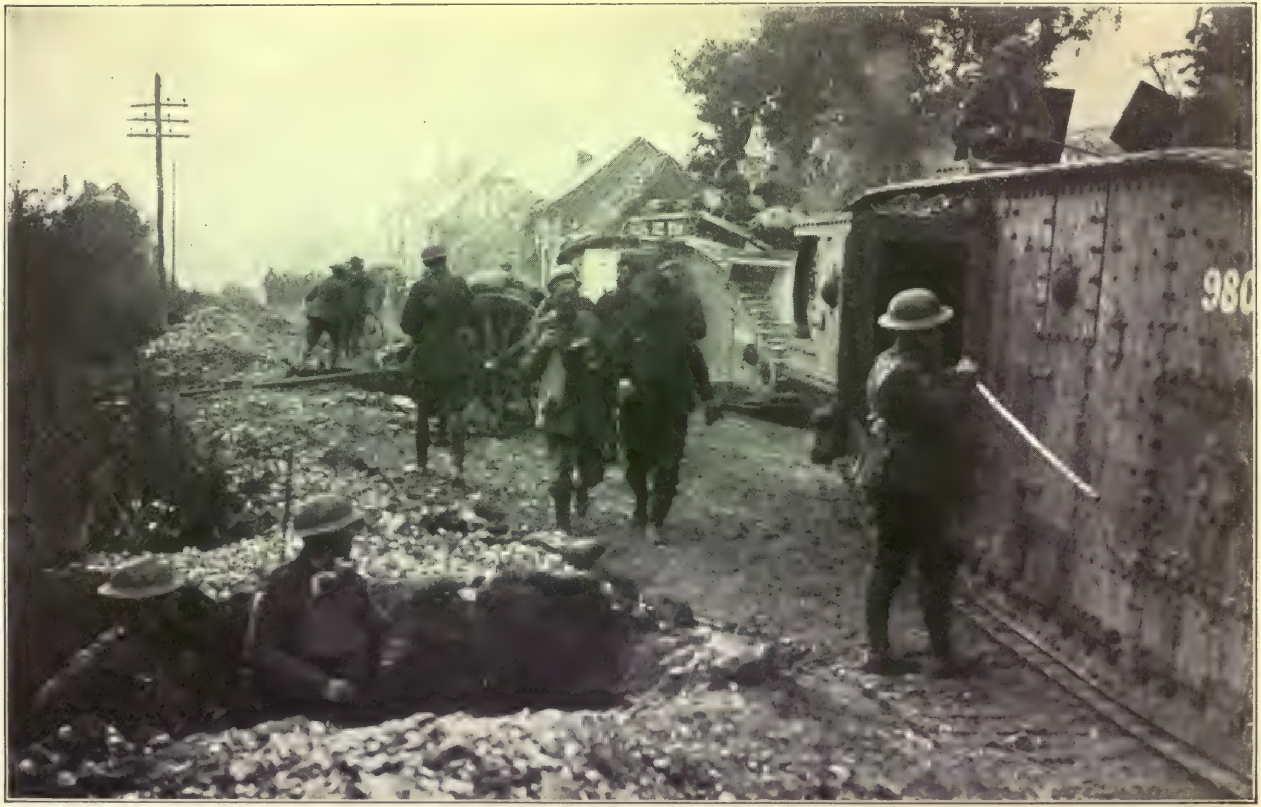
Keeping Our Canadian Soldiers Fit

A soldier eats his own weight in food about every thirty days and there is more truth than fiction in the statement that an army travels on its stomach. Poor food and reduced rations will take the heart out of an army very quickly, while plenty of good wholesome food is a tremendous factor in keeping an army healthy and in fighting trim.

The problem of feeding an army is a never ending one. There could be no breakdown in the system of supplies, for the army must be fed regularly under all conditions. Fleets of ships scoured the world in pursuit of supplies of food for the British army. Scores of ships loaded with fresh frozen beef, cheese, bacon, butter, and flour sailed from America to the British Isles every week. Other scores of ships with mutton from Australia, beef from South America, sugar from the West Indies and other essentials carried their cargoes to supply rations for the British army.

Scurvy no longer occurs in warring armies. Though the rations consisted of staple nutritious foods, and fresh vegetables because of their bulk could not be issued, provision was made for the purchase of accessory foods. The ration officially issued was so liberal that it could not be consumed and the excess ration was seldom actually issued. But for the rations not issued credit was allowed so that fruit, fresh vegetables, sweets and other extra luxuries could be purchased. The British commissariat kept on hand a great variety of luxuries which the various army messes could purchase with the credits allowed them. Organizations like the Canadian Contingent Association and other similar organizations also provided extras to the troops in the field, all of which helped to vary the monotony of the regular diet.

Beef and bacon are the two kinds of meat that can be eaten by the soldier day after day for months at a time without getting tired of them and these are the two ration meats used in the British army. That is why the price of beef and bacon soared sky high in



WARTIME TRAFFIC IN HOURGES
British tanks going forward into action, and German prisoners coming in.

Canada during the war. The army had first call on the supply and there was not enough left to go round.

Wheat bread is always a staple in the diet of the British soldier and huge bakeries at the British base turned out tens of thousands of loaves a day. It was common gossip at the front in 1916 that the chief baker at the base had received the Military Cross—thereby testifying to the importance of his work. Sugar was also found to be an excellent food and was added to the soldiers' dietary, chiefly in the form of jam. Cheese also was a great standby and constituted part of the ration. Maconachie ration—a canned Irish stew—beans, peas, dried potatoes, rice and, when obtainable locally, fresh vegetables, gave variety to the diet.

In the British army portable cookers on wheels accompanied the army units on the march. A meal could be started before camp was left and kept cooking on the march so that when the unit stopped, a steaming hot meal was all ready to serve.

CLOTHING AN IMPORTANT FACTOR

The British army was undoubtedly the best fed, best equipped and healthiest army that has ever taken the field since the beginning of time. The uniform was warm and of the best quality. Underclothes of wool, flannel shirts, woolen cardigan jackets, sweaters and balaclava caps were issued when desired and the blankets were of good quality. In winter rubber capes were issued to all, while rubber hip boots, or waders, were supplied to the men in the trenches. All drivers were issued with rubber coats and sou'wester hats. The expense of these waterproof supplies was very great, but expense was nothing to the British army where pneumonia and death were concerned. The health of the army was the great desideratum and every effort was made to prevent unnecessary sickness. The first Americans landed in France, equipped with canvas clothing, nearly froze to death and were outfitted with British woolen shoddy which had been found by experience to be the only kind of clothing suitable to the damp, cold, penetrating climate of northern France.

RECREATION AND RELAXATION

But a soldier needs other things than good food, warm clothing and equipment to keep him well and happy. He has a brain and that brain has to be exercised like his other physical faculties.

LIBRARY

When men have been under the strain of the front line trenches, the monotony of heavy fatigue work and the long dreary spells of cold and wet he must have relaxation of some sort, an opportunity to play games and have a good laugh. The British soldier was not like the French poilu. You did not see him sitting around in the little villages in groups of three to a dozen or more smoking cigarettes and discussing with great volubility questions of practical or theoretical interest as was the custom of the French soldier.

But he loved getting and writing letters. You saw him standing in front of candy stores trying, like the boy he was, to decide what he would buy. You saw him playing football and baseball with great enthusiasm or cheering for his own team. And he loved the movie shows and concert companies that helped to brighten his evenings out of the line.

Everywhere in the army area were found the Y. M. C. A. huts or tents. There during the day the soldier found the huts filled with little tables at which he could read or write letters. A good supply of newspapers, magazines and books was always kept on hand, while each Y. M. C. A. hut operated a canteen where coffee, sweet stuffs, soft drinks and other delicacies not supplied by the army could be obtained.

In the Y. M. C. A. huts concerts and illustrated lectures were given, while practical talks on Christianity and other topics of interest to the thinking soldier, aided by sing-songs, were frequently held. Educational classes in French, literature, history and other subjects were given to those interested.

Supplementing the Y. M. C. A. huts were the Salvation Army huts and Church Army huts with somewhat similar purposes.

The entertainment features, though frequently provided by local talent, by no means depended upon volunteers. In England an entertainment bureau was organized which sent out concert companies, entertainers, prominent professional men and scientists on regular tours along the front. Some of the greatest authorities in Great Britain on subjects such as aeronautics, law, naval affairs, history, philosophy and English literature contributed gladly to these courses.

In athletics, every unit had its football team, sprinters, boxers and other athletes, always ready to meet their rivals in the field days frequently held behind the line. Boxing tournaments were always wonderfully well patronized by thousands of soldiers, experts on that national pastime.

Numerous band concerts were given at the front. Each regiment, as a rule, had some sort of a band to help lighten the weary road. The effect of music upon exhausted soldiers on the march was wonderful. To see a regiment of soldiers in heavy marching order plodding along the rough pavé roads in Flanders and then to see them brace up and step out with renewed life when the music struck up was to convince one that an army band was a real godsend. The British and Canadian soldier loved music and wherever a band concert was to take place every man who was able treked to the square or the field where the concert was to be held, and usually stood in silence till the concert was over. It was, perhaps, one of the most characteristic English features of a people who had a band in every village and town and who truly loved music.

WATER SPORTS

One of the most interesting and unique events that I saw was a regatta held on a canal in the village of Merville one spring Sunday afternoon. Overhead aeroplanes droned on their daily routine and in the distance the field guns cracked in the desultory fashion of that period.

Gathered along the banks of the stream were the villagers in their Sunday-best clothes mingled with crowds of British soldiers. Opposite the finishing line sat the Mayor and the judges including the Director of Medical Services of the district, while behind them was seated a scratch village band.

Promptly at 2.30 the regatta commenced with an open swimming race. Then there followed high diving contests, long dives, swimming under water, walking the greasy pole and tub races. The most interesting of all was a sort of gladiatorial contest. Two huge boats, heavily built and with high projecting bows, approached each other at full speed. Each barge was manned by several oarsmen, one man to an oar, while on the bow stood a half naked soldier armed with a long pole on the end of which was bound a huge swab covered with leather. When the barges came within striking distance the two contestants tilted ferociously at one another with their lances, but missed, and the boats came together with a crash that nearly threw the contestants into the stream.

Then followed a furious battle; the boats were securely locked together and the two gladiators punched and struck with their shortened weapons until one, fetching the other a neat back slap under the ear, precipitated him into the canal amid cheers and roars of laughter.

We went home refreshed in body and spirit and on many a tiresome day I looked back upon that Sunday afternoon with a great deal of pleasure and amusement. Doubtless there were hundreds of others who extracted as much enjoyment from the regatta as had I. And that is why contests, sports and competitions meant so much to the man in the field, not altogether for what he got out of them at the time but for the pleasure he got in looking backward and thinking of them when times were more or less dark and dreary.

FIELD DAYS BEHIND THE LINES

Much ingenuity was employed in getting up some of these field days behind the lines. On one occasion the Second Canadian brigade gave an afternoon of sports. There were the usual preliminaries—boxing, wrestling on horseback, novelty races—to the real event, a circus parade. Hundreds of soldiers in costume took part led by three band-wagons and a wonderfully attired ringmaster. Wild men and women in chains, and a general in chains on floats, could not rival the one which depicted the return of the Canadians after the war. A group of men with snowy beards reaching to their waists and with arms covered to the shoulders with wound stripes sat upon a raft with a tree stump for a mast. All struggled desperately at the oars while the steersman at the stern manipulated a chopper as a rudder. "Canada or bust" was the motto suspended from the mast.

On another occasion at the sports of the Canadian Corps in France about 50,000 soldiers attended. The meet was held in a sort of huge national amphitheatre, special stands were erected for officers and detailed arrangements made to feed the multitude. One of the most interesting features of this meet was the fact that men met scores of friends whom they had not met for months and years past and all voted it a huge success.

LEAVE TO BLIGHTY

Provision was made in the British army for men and officers to obtain leave, usually for a week or ten days, to England. It had a wonderful effect in getting rid of the staleness which sooner or later gripped all men at the front. The few days of relaxation away from the sound of the guns amid surroundings of cleanliness and comfort rejuvenated the men and sent them back prepared for another spell at fighting the Hun.

BATHS

The greatest luxury at the front was a hot bath, and these were provided in every divisional area on the British front. Three or four miles behind the trenches in the rest areas, in places where a plentiful supply of water could be obtained, the army had established bath houses. Sometimes a brewery, or part of it, was taken over for this purpose because the breweries all had deep wells from which a plentiful supply of water could be obtained. If the bath house was in a brewery they utilized the large beer barrels cut in two for baths. These were filled with cold water and live steam turned into the water to warm it.

Most of the bath houses were in improvised shacks built upon the edge of creeks or ponds. The water was pumped into an elevated reservoir and usually heated by means of a threshing machine boiler, rented or purchased from some neighbouring farmer. One section of the shack was divided off for a bathroom with a number of showers and the other rooms devoted to the receiving of dirty clothing, storing clean clothing, washing, drying and sterilizing.

At the bath house a certain number, say twenty men, passed into the first room where they undressed. Their underclothes and shirts were thrown to one side to be washed; their uniforms were hung on numbered racks and placed in the disinfection chamber where they were immediately treated with live steam or dry heat, or they were taken into an adjoining room where the seams were ironed with hot irons to destroy "cooties."

The men then passed into the bathroom where they were given about ten minutes to luxuriate in plenty of hot water and soap. As they passed out of the bath through another room they were given clean socks, underclothes and shirts, and by the time they were dressed their own uniforms, disinfected, were handed back to them. The whole operation took from twenty-five to thirty minutes, and from a thousand to fifteen hundred men were put through each bath house in a day.

The discarded clothes were washed by local peasant women paid by the army. In one of these establishments there were 160 Belgian peasant women engaged in this work. Mending was also done by them, while socks and clothes too far gone to be mended were packed in bundles and sent away to be sold.

The waste wash water from the baths and laundries entering the creeks naturally caused trouble to troops down stream who had to use it. Horses would not touch the soapy water, and the brewers objected to making beer with it.

Consequently the sanitary officers were in many cases compelled to put in tanks to treat this dirty water and purify it. This was usually done by adding an excess of chloride of lime, which precipitated the soap as a curd and carried the dirt down with it. By sedimentation, and filtration through canvas, cinders and sand, the water was clarified and turned into the creeks again clean.

CHAPTER III

The United States in the War

The United States of America had always clung to the policy of the Monroe Doctrine, which was very dear to her—a policy which would not permit of any entangling foreign alliance or interference in any European dispute. It was a principle that had as its foundation the belief that the United States was not necessarily one of the great community operations and could therefore pursue its own course irrespective of its great world neighbours.

The Americans had from the beginning of the war steadily endeavoured to secure a maritime code that would ensure to all nations the freedom of the seas, and had tried to secure a judicial settlement of the military disputes between the combatant nations.

Slowly they learned the bitter truth that no nation, like no man, can live unto himself alone. They learned that there could be no such thing as freedom on the seas unless they did their share of winning the war on land, that the power that worshipped Force had to be beaten with force, and that they had to help compel the savages of Europe to put up their swords. The agents that enlightened the American people, that made them realize the true situation and ultimately made them throw in their lot with the Allies worked slowly but surely.

The ravishing of Belgium convinced most thinking Americans that Germany was a menace to civilization. The German claim that the United States had no business to sell munitions to the Allies irritated American opinion. The sinking of the *Lusitania* brought home the conviction that persistence in such a policy must inevitably result in war. The conspiracies carried on by official agents of the Central Powers stung American pride to the very quick. Throughout the length and breadth of the United States, and even in departments of the Government, German and Austrian accredited agents operated, bought and subsidized papers to arouse feelings of bitterness for and distrust of the Allies, and embroil the country in war; incited insurrection in Cuba, Haiti and Santo Domingo; stirred up discord in South America; blew up bridges, munition works and other vital works, and in general endeavoured by every known means to keep the United States from entering the war against them and minimize her assistance to the allied cause as much as possible.

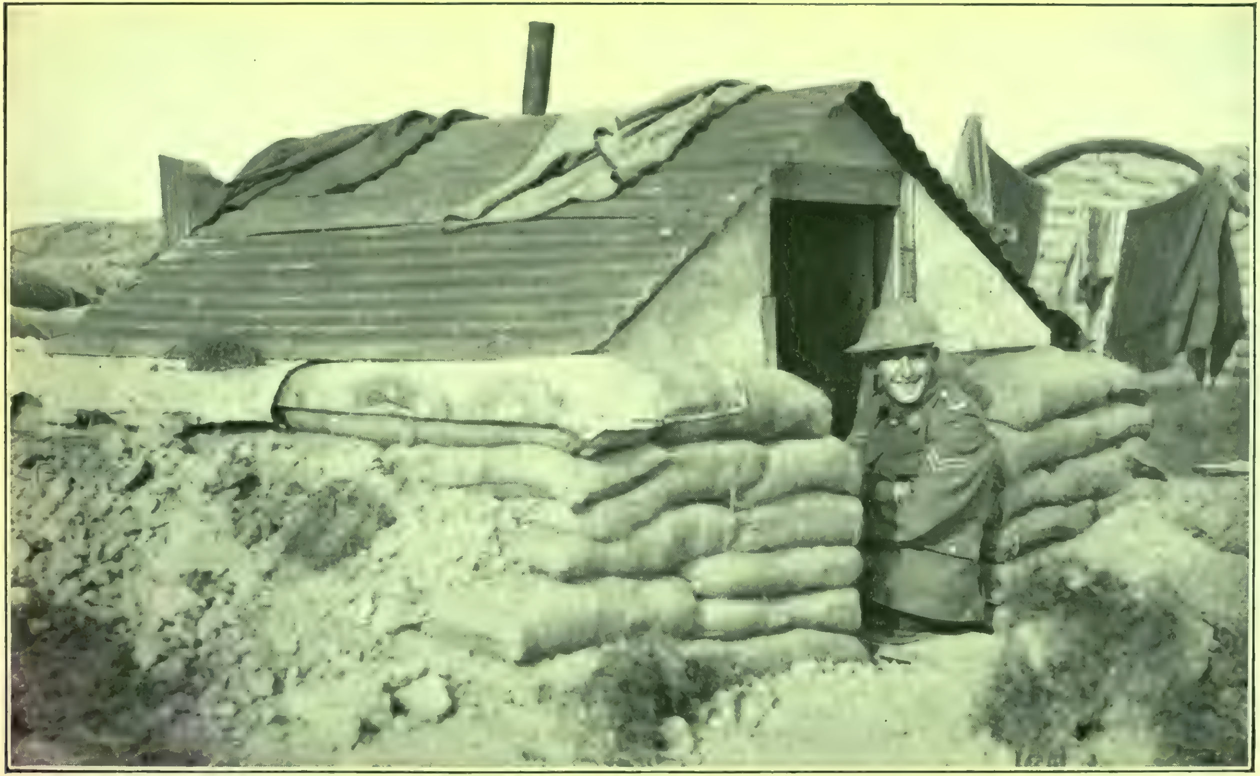
The complicated negotiations which took place between Berlin and Washington resulted in a promise from Germany that ships would not be sunk on the high seas without warning. To the casual observer, it might seem as though the matter had been settled. But two opinions had steadily developed in America as a result of these various controversies, both championed by prominent men.

Mr. Elihu Root and Mr. Theodore Roosevelt were strongly of the opinion that this war was America's war and that the Allies were fighting for America's interests and the maintenance of public right. To this group the disputes with Great Britain as to her naval policy were of no import because Great Britain was waging a war for the rights of humanity including America.

The champion of the other school was President Wilson. He desired to make this the last war fought under the old conditions of international isolation and desired to create a League to Enforce Peace—a league which would police the world for the sake of international justice.

Shortly after the Presidential election of 1916 in which Wilson had been returned to power on the understanding that he would pursue his policy of keeping America out of the war, the German U-boat activity revived, and Germany, pointing to her conquests, threw out feelers for a peace based on those victories. President Wilson, now assured of power and pledged to the policy of a League of Nations, saw that America's hour was about to strike. To clear the air, Wilson sent notes inviting the belligerent nations to define their aims. The fact was thereby established that opinion in the United States was clearly the same as the opinion of the Allies, and therefore antagonistic to that of the Central Powers. On January 22d, 1917, the President in an eloquent speech set forth the terms of a peace which could be guaranteed by America.

A week later, on January 31st, Germany informed the United States that she intended to enter upon an unrestricted submarine campaign. On the 3d of February the American Ambassador at Berlin was recalled and the German Ambassador to America handed his passport.



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HIS LITTLE GREY HOME ON THE WESTERN FRONT

A soldier of the Canadian Railway Troops is obviously pleased with the hut he built. Note the shell-proof, sand-bagged sides.

The President in a speech to both Houses announced the severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, but stated that only actual overt acts would convince him of Germany's hostile purpose. He ended with a solemn declaration that if such occurred, he would ask Congress for power to take any steps necessary for the protection of the American people.

As a result of the German decree, American passenger ships were deterred from sailing to Europe. Though only a couple of American ships were sunk, an intolerable situation was created for a great and independent people such as the Americans were. President Wilson, therefore, on February 26th, asked Congress for authority to arm American ships for defensive purposes. The authority was granted by the House of Representatives but was held up by a pacifist element in the Senate until the session closed. An overwhelming majority of the Senate, however, signed a manifesto in favor of the bill.

On February 26th the *Laconia* was sunk and eight Americans drowned. On March 1st an order issued by Zimmerman, the German Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, to the German Minister in Mexico, was published. It suggested that in the event of war breaking out between Germany and the United States, Mexico would receive financial aid from the German Government if she would form an alliance with Germany. The states of Texas, Arizona and New Mexico would be given Mexico as a bribe if she would undertake an invasion of the United States. It was understood also that Japan would be invited to break faith with the Entente Allies and declare war against America.

Such proposals inspired a deep resentment in the Western States where the U-boat campaign was least understood. Practically all thoughtful Americans now realized that the policy of armed neutrality was impossible.

On March 12th an order was issued that merchant ships should be armed. On March 16th the *Vigilancia*, with five Americans on board, was sunk. Next day the *City of Memphis* and the *Illinois* were sent to the bottom. On the 21st, seven Americans perished when the *Healdton* was torpedoed off Holland, and on April 1st, twenty-eight Americans went down with the *Aztec*.

The defiance was so clear that American feeling against Germany reached fever heat. On April 2d, President Wilson, at a joint session of the two Houses of Congress summarized the situation in a message that will rank with the greatest of America's many great official speeches. He said in part:

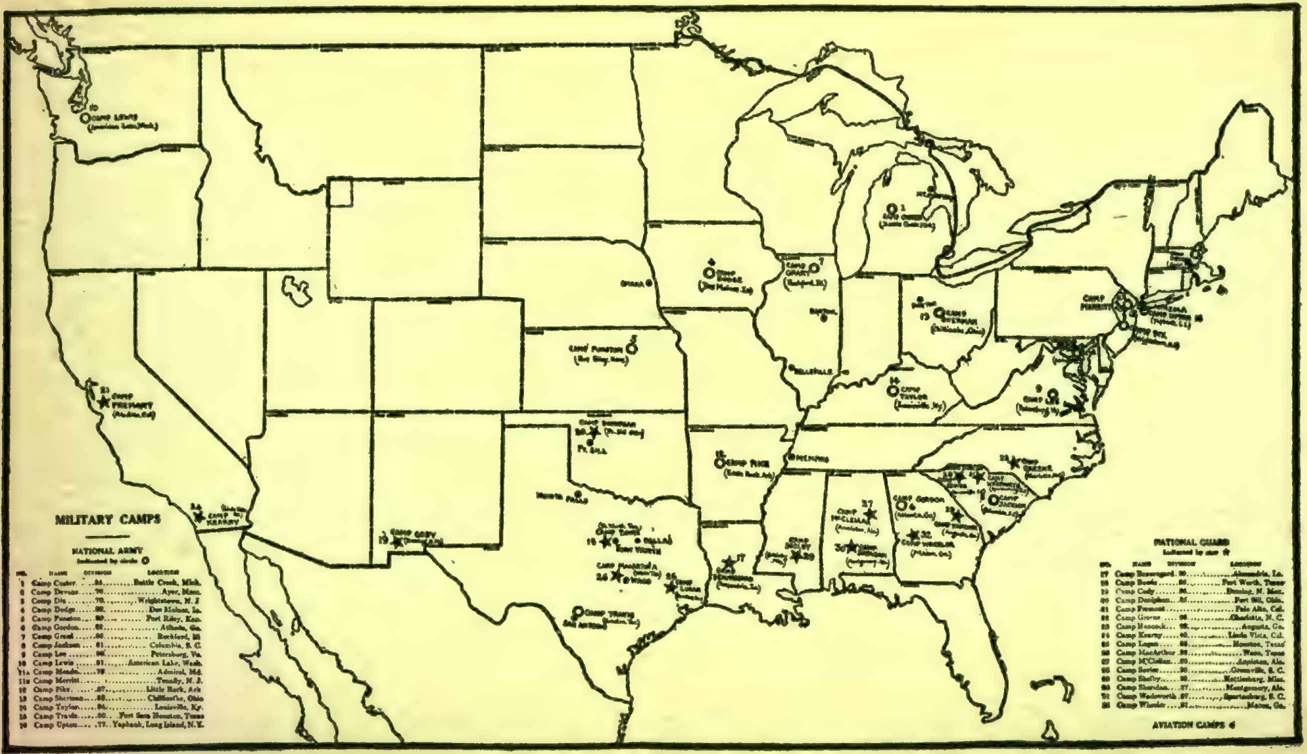
> There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making: we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are not common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life.
>
> With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediately steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defence, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war.

The message of the President was received with great enthusiasm by Congress and by the country at large. Though the debate revealed some opposition, opinion was vastly in favor of war, and on April 4th the Senate passed the war resolution by 82 votes to 6. On April 6th by a majority of 373 votes to 50 the House of Representatives passed the same resolution.

Perhaps no speech so succinctly epitomized the general feeling of the true American as the speech of the Representative from Illinois, Mr. Foss.

> As a reward for our neutrality what have we received at the hands of William II? He has set the torch of the incendiary to our factories, our work-shops, our ships and our wharves. He has laid the bomb of the assassin in our munition plants and the holds of our ships. He has sought to corrupt our manhood with a selfish dream of peace, when there is no peace. He has wilfully butchered our citizens on the high seas. He has destroyed our commerce. He seeks to terrorize us with his devilish policy of frightfulness. He has violated every canon of international decency, and set at nought every solemn treaty and every precept of international law. He has plunged the world into the maddest orgy of blood, rapine and murder which history records. He has intrigued against our peace at home and abroad. He seeks to destroy our civilization. Patience is no longer a virtue, further endurance is cowardice, submission to Prussian demands is slavery.

The unrestricted submarine warfare could have had no other


MILITARY CAMPS
NATIONAL ARMY
Indicated by circle ○
NO. NAME DIVISION LOCATION
1 Camp Custer . . . Battle Creek, Mich.
2 Camp Devens . . . Ayer, Mass.
3 Camp Dix . . . Wrightstown, N. J.
4 Camp Dodge . . . Des Moines, Ia.
5 Camp Funston . . . Fort Riley, Kan.
6 Camp Gordon . . . Atlanta, Ga.
7 Camp Grant . . . Rockford, Ill.
8 Camp Jackson . . . 81 . . . Columbia, S. C.
9 Camp Lee . . . Petersburg, Va.
10 Camp Lewis . . . American Lake, Wash.
11a Camp Meade . . . Admiral, Md.
11b Camp Merritt . . . Tenafly, N. J.
12 Camp Pike . . . Little Rock, Ark.
13 Camp Sherman . . . Chillicothe, Ohio
14 Camp Taylor . . . Louisville, Ky.
15 Camp Travis . . . Fort Sam Houston, Texas
16 Camp Upton . . . 77 . . Yaphank, Long Island, N.Y.
NATIONAL GUARD
Indicated by star ★
NO. NAME DIVISION LOCATION
17 Camp Beauregard . . . Alexandria, La.
18 Camp Bowie . . . Fort Worth, Texas
19 Camp Cody . . . Deming, N. Mex.
20 Camp Doniphan . . . Fort Sill, Okla.
21 Camp Fremont . . . Palo Alto, Cal.
22 Camp Greene . . . Charlotte, N. C.
23 Camp Hancock . . . Augusta, Ga.
24 Camp Kearny . . . Linda Vista, Cal.
25 Camp Logan . . . Houston, Texas
26 Camp MacArthur . . . Waco, Texas
27 Camp M'Clellan . . . Anniston, Ala.
28 Camp Sevier . . . Greenville, S. C.
29 Camp Shelby . . . Hattiesburg, Miss.
30 Camp Sheridan . . . 37 . . . Montgomery, Ala.
31 Camp Wadsworth . 27 . . . Spartanburg, S. C.
32 Camp Wheeler . . . Macon, Ga.
AVIATION CAMPS ✈
CAMP LEWIS
CAMP FREMONT
CAMP KEARNY
CAMP CODY
CAMP FUNSTON
CAMP DODGE
CAMP GRANT
CAMP CUSTER
CAMP SHERMAN
CAMP TAYLOR
CAMP LEE
CAMP PIKE
CAMP TRAVIS
CAMP GORDON
CAMP McCLELLAN
CAMP WHEELER
CAMP JACKSON
CAMP GREENE
CAMP MERRITT
CAMP DIX
CAMP DEVENS

HOME CAMPS OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

result (with a proud people) than war. The United States policy of armed neutrality was bound to end in a clash, and the arming of merchant ships manned by crews from the navy was but a step towards the inevitable. Accordingly the Naval Department worked at high speed making preparations for active service, gathering fully complements of men for their ships and hastening the construction of new vessels.

When the United States entered the war on April 6, 1917, a Council of National Defence was formed which acted as the great centre for organizing and co-ordinating all agencies and industries essential for the efficient prosecution of the war. To the high executive offices men of the highest ability in the country were appointed at the nominal salary of a dollar a year. The nation decided to raise an army of 4,000,000 men by the system known as the "Selective Draft" and, as in England, the arming, equipping and transportation of that host was quickly realized to be a task infinitely greater and more difficult than had been at first anticipated.

The United States had one enormous advantage in that it had the experience of the Allies during nearly three years of war. The Allies had made many mistakes and had learned a great deal through the bitter experience of failure. Naturally they were anxious that their great new ally should not waste effort or duplicate methods which had already proved unsatisfactory, and therefore sent over experts in every branch of warfare to give them the benefit of their experience. This meant a great deal, and the United States evinced an eagerness to eliminate the mistakes of others and become efficient in every field that was remarkable.

The problems of the United States were no simple ones. The foreign population constituted a large per cent of the total population, and its mixed character may be gauged from the fact that American censors were required to know forty-seven languages.

When the United States had therefore fully made up its mind, there was no further truck with any antagonistic foreign element; German capital invested in American industries was placed under the jurisdiction of the Alien Property Custodian. Wireless apparatus was all put under government control; 109 German ships, of which great numbers had been interned, were seized and converted into transports.

Nothing surprised the Germans more than the passing of the Draft Act, because such legislation was known to be opposed to American principles. But the Draft Act stands to-day as a monument to the United States, for the people entered into it and co-operated with it until it was made a shining and brilliant success.

The United States had entered the struggle with very few laws to protect the people. They had great difficulty in getting proper measures, and it was only after the country had been in the war six months that the necessary legislation was provided. But it was found possible to perform the work with little new legislation. The country came through the conflict without a single drastic change in the law and without any military tribunals. The civil authorities had totally suppressed enemy propaganda and sedition while maintaining good order and government throughout the land.

One of the laws that proved most valuable in handling a difficult situation was one enacted one hundred and twenty-five years ago called the Internment Act, which provided the President with power to deal with aliens as he saw fit. It had been entirely forgotten by the great majority of legislators and completely overlooked by the German spies in their nefarious work and its ramifications. But it came about that the President authorized the Attorney-General to administer the so-called alien enemy proclamations. The act was not reviewable by the courts and it cleared the United States of all hostile propaganda and hostile activities.

When the United States entered the war the Government expected all kinds of lawlessness and crime on the part of the alien enemies and their spies, but they did not occur. The Internment Act was enforced with the utmost severity and proved the great power in stamping out German activity. It regulated the conduct of every alien enemy in the country and protected the entire seaboard from the Gulf of Mexico to Vancouver. It required all alien enemies who were not interned to obtain photographic passes, and in all, 900,000 of these documents were issued. The law worked with such perfection that immediately an alien enemy showed himself at any port in the United States he was placed under arrest and promptly interned. Strangely enough it was the civil power that protected the army bases.

The Internment Act broke up the enemy intrigues, and it worked with astounding effect in one of the most extraordinary conglomerations of humanity that had ever been met in any land. It made absolutely no distinction in the standing of persons charged or suspected, and immediately the information was received the accused was placed under arrest. Anyone believed to be a menace was interned without delay and in quick time the great bulk of the spies that infested the continent at the outbreak of the war were lodged in the jails and internment camps of the country.

Great efforts were made to speed up the building of ships and increase the number of shipyards. The production of munitions was increased at a marvellous rate. Great plans were made to evolve a fleet of 20,000 aeroplanes, while practical plans to increase the production of food and prevent all unnecessary waste of foodstuffs were rapidly put into force.

The war had become popular in America and the whole country rallied to the support of the Government in a way that was gratifying to all concerned. Action taken to reduce railway travel and thereby enable more freight to be carried, to conserve gasoline, to save fuel and light, to adopt compulsory rationing and other measures received the hearty and united approval of the people.

Billions of dollars for war purposes were voted without opposition; increased taxation was met with cheerfulness, and huge war loans were raised by the Government from the investment of the public in war bonds.

The American democracy was willing to accept more or less autocratic conditions without a murmur, realizing that to get the best and quickest results the administration during a war must be in the hands of the few.

The U-boat campaign had been steadily reducing the carrying capacity of the allied fleets and the United States realized that her obligations lay with her Allies—that it was just as necessary to keep the allied armies and the allied peoples fed as it was to raise an army.

The original American Government plan was to have 5,000,000 men under arms before the middle of 1919. The first selective service law conscripted men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one inclusive. On the first registration day, June 5, 1917, 9,586,508 men were enrolled and from these by the selective method 625,000 men were drawn. Under the second selective service legislation 13,000,000 citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, inclusive, were enrolled on September 12, 1918. Youths under nineteen years of age were placed in a group to be called last, and men between thirty-six and forty-five were put in a deferred class. When the armistice was signed the United States had actually 4,000,000 men under arms.

The first actual participation of Americans in the war occurred when an American destroyer escorted a large Atlantic liner through the danger zone. Shortly after that Admiral Sims, with a fleet of American destroyers, arrived at Queenstown just twenty-eight days after war had been declared. A great reception was given to the American flotilla. The streets were decorated with the Stars and Stripes and the sailors hospitably entertained.

One of the first great problems to be solved was that of producing more tonnage in ships than the German submarines were sinking. The submarine blockade was proving to be a real menace: huge quantities of food, munitions and material destined for the Allies were being sent to the bottom daily. No neutral nation was immune and Norwegian, Dutch, Spanish and other ships met the same fate. England depended absolutely on her shipping and Germany was making a desperate effort to starve her. Since much of Great Britain's supplies were carried in neutral ships Germany realized that in pursuing this policy, she was staking her last card, and struck out in a wild frenzy that brought upon her the wrath of the whole neutral world.

The United States had neglected shipbuilding in recent years and many ships were needed. The American Government immediately appropriated $1,135,000,000 for the purpose of ship building. Delays were caused through division of authority and progress was not as rapid as expected. In the spring of 1918 the Director General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation speeded up production, so that at the end of the first year the Government had gathered up two and three-quarters million tons of shipping. In the year previous to the war, only a quarter of a million tons of shipping was turned out in the country. During the month of May, 1918, more than that quantity was being turned out.

This result was only possible through the patriotic stand of the American Federation of Labour. Occasional strikes occurred that were readily settled and the high wages paid enabled the worker to live as he never had before. There was a moderate amount of trouble caused by the anarchistic foreign element but this was easily controlled.

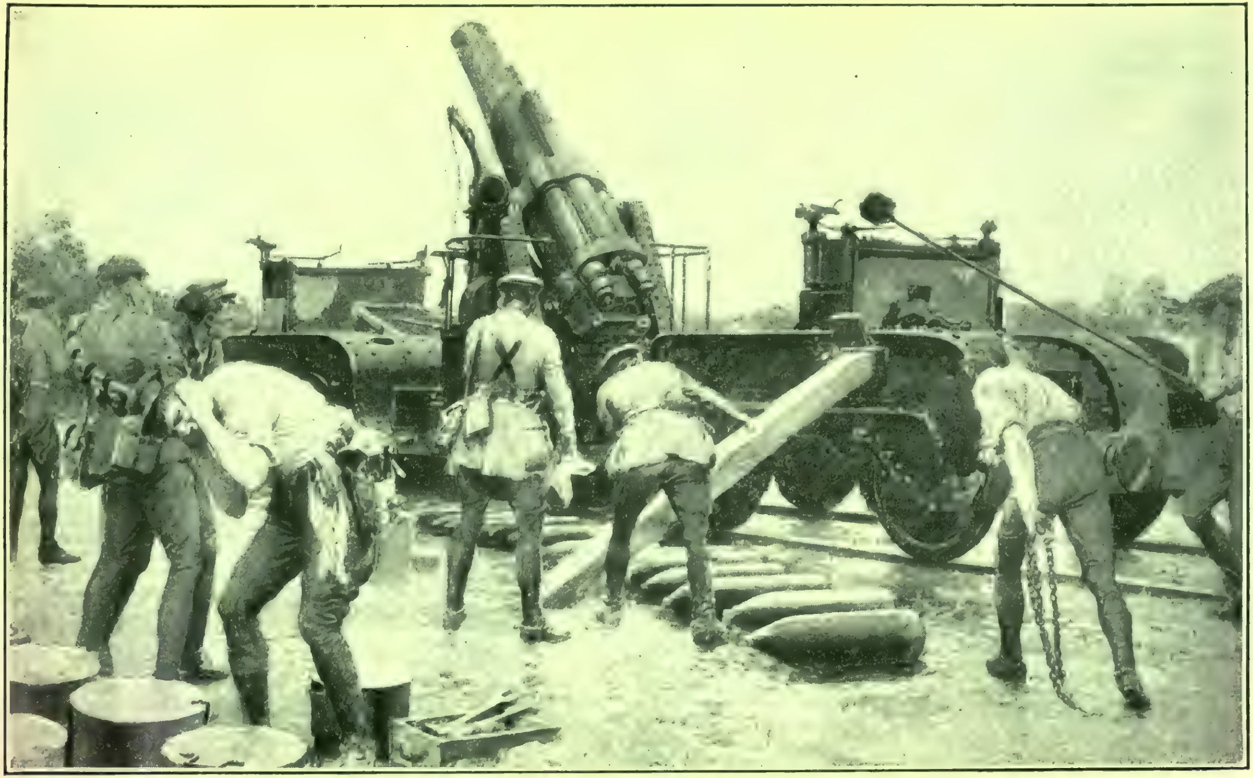
In the effort to rush additional material and food to the Atlantic ports after war had been declared, immediate trouble developed on the railroads. The United States Government had not, like Great Britain many years before the war, worked out the problem of mobilization with the railway authorities. Even before the entry of the United States, thousands of loaded cars accumulated at the comparatively few shipping points, while after war was declared the congestion rapidly increased. This situation was complicated by the necessity of moving hundreds of thousands of soldiers to camps as well as the material to build the camps. Government officials, by the abuse of the system of priority tags, further hindered progress and created a difficult situation. Failing to find a satisfactory solution anywhere the President, at the end of December, 1917, took over the entire transportation systems of the United States through authority derived from an act of Congress, and placed them under a Director General of Railroads. It was a fine illustration of the fact that the Government desired efficiency above all else, for to take over 441 corporations employing 1,600,000 men and worth $17,500,000,000 was a gigantic venture.

The immediate result of the President's action was that coal moved to the districts needing it most, thereby keeping production of war materials going; wheat began flowing in a steady stream from the West to Atlantic ports for shipment to the Allies, and, in general, a wonderful addition to the strength of the allied cause was brought about by this bold arrangement.

Little did any one dream that a war in Europe would induce the greatest democracy in the world to adopt an autocratic action without parallel. Not only did the railway companies, including perhaps some of the most powerful corporations in the world, accept the situation, but the action met with the universal approval of the people.

Following this the American Government took over the control of all telegraph, telephone, radio and cable lines for the duration of the war.

To handle the immense problem of transporting the huge American army to France, it was necessary to build new terminals,



NERVE-RACKING WORK FOR BOTH SIDES
Heavy British howitzer on rail emplacement bombarding German positions with high explosive shell.

new docks, and new supply bases both in America and in France. The ships necessary for the actual transport were not available, and over half of the army had to be carried in British ships.

To the Allies, June 25th was a memorable day, for on that day the first American troops landed in France. The American regular army was naturally small, consisting of some 190,000 troops, and it was necessary to distribute these among the new troops then being trained in America.

General Pershing, the American commander-in-chief, was an expert soldier with years of campaigning in the Mexican and Spanish wars. The regular American army staff were highly trained professionals, perhaps equal to any in the world. And when it was announced that American soldiers had landed in France the Allies, particularly the French people, heaved a vast sigh of relief. It was proof that the United States was in the war, that the Russian defection had not made the situation on the western front hopeless, and that ultimate victory was assured to the Allies. It was natural that these lithe, lean young men with the springy walk of the Canadian, New Zealander and Australian, should have received a welcome such as only the French people can give. They were the vanguard of an army of millions from the great sister Republic that could and would, if necessity demanded it, put fifteen millions of men in the field.

CHAPTER IV

The Russian Revolution

Rasputin—meaning "dirty dog"—of peasant Siberian stock, had in his youth been famous as a horse thief, perjurer, drunkard and libertine. Upon these qualifications he had grafted that of a religious ascetic, wearing a hair shirt and performing miracles. He started a new cult where dancing and debauchery were mixed with mystic seances, and his uncanny power over women soon gave him a great following.

This scoundrel, the like of whom does not often appear outside of the pages of a novel, finally gained access to the imperial family in Petrograd and became a sort of royal medicine man to the Russian court.

His chief passion, after drink and women, was gold and it quickly became apparent that the quickest road to high office was to bribe Rasputin. Fashionable women, ministers and dignitaries of the church waited in his antechamber.

He stood for all that was dark, ignorant and brutal in Russia, and had much to do with the retirement of the Grand Duke Nicholas, who openly despised him. Princes of the royal blood appealed to the Czar and Czarina to tear themselves loose from his influence and were promptly exiled for their pains.

As is usual in such cases, he created an army of enemies. He had frequently been assaulted and beaten but curiously enough escaped death at the hands of his enemies, who were chiefly of the upper classes.

At last he became so alarmed that he would interview only those who had been seen first by his bodyguard and finally kept himself in hiding.

His end came one night when he was invited out to a supper party, was plied with poisoned wine which failed to work, and was eventually shot and thrown into the river. The whole country applauded the deed which was regarded as a judicial execution.

It was the preliminary to the Russian revolution.

The session of the Duma in November, 1916, with its attacks upon the administration, had passed by apparently without result. Prince Golitzin had been appointed premier, and M. Protopopov, the chief agent of reaction, had increased his activities

But underneath therewere forces workingwhichwere destined to bring about such an upheaval as the modern world had never seen.

Opposed to the court circle with its corrupt influences, secret police affiliations and underworld methods of oppression, there had gradually come together another set of forces, composed of the reasonable elements in Russian life. These included the Duma, the united nobility, the Council of the Empire, together with the extreme Socialists who, however, had not the same objectives. With the better forces the army was in full sympathy.

With the aid of the stir caused by the murder of Rasputin the "Dark Forces" of Russia hoped to bring on an abortive revolution, whose suppression by every known method of terror would enthrone those sinister influences for another century. They had forgotten the struggle with Germany and considered only their own selfish interests and the perpetuation of their barbaric prerogatives.

The just fate of Rasputin postponed the assembling of the Duma for another month, to give, it was said, the new Premier time to consider his policy. Meanwhile the censorship tightened, the police became interested in all private meetings, and the general congress of the Zemstovs and the Union of Towns was forbidden. Machine guns intended for the army were established all over Petrograd and the secret police was vastly increased.

Endeavours were now made to force along the revolution which was to re-establish the reactionaries in power, but the people seemed not to desire it. On February 27th the Duma met and everything went quietly. In the streets of Petrograd straggling processions of people wandered about begging for food for their children, while others waited in long queues for the daily bread ration which grew more difficult to obtain. The transport system of Russia, under the strain of war had broken down, and the export of grain from parts of the country where there was plenty, to others where there was none was prohibited. Everywhere there were the Social Democrats to blame the Government which made such a condition possible.

On March 8th, while the Duma was discussing the food situation, some bakers' shops were broken into in the poorer quarters of Petrograd. It was the beginning of the revolution.

Next day all Petrograd was on the *qui vive.* Everybody appeared on the streets expecting something to happen. Cossack soldiers were cheered but the police were stoned and some shooting resulted. Two workmen who had been arrested were rescued by a band of Cossacks and turned over to their friends. There was little political speech-making and appeals for moderation were heard on every hand. Next day the crowds were denser and the talk was of a more serious character.

The Government had either to satisfy the people or threaten them. They did the latter. A proclamation was issued announcing that the police would disperse crowds, and workmen not returning to work would be sent to the front. The crowds continued to gather with the result that some two hundred were killed. One regiment mutinied when told to fire upon the people. The President of the Duma, M. Rodzianko, telegraphed the Emperor describing the situation and stating that a new government enjoying the confidence of the people should be formed at once. Copies of the telegram were sent to the army chiefs asking for their support. The Premier, Golitzin, prorogued the Duma with the consent of the Emperor, but the Duma refused to be prorogued and constituted itself the sole constitutional authority of Russia. Next day the soldiers were ordered to fire upon the mob; they refused and shot their most unpopular officers. Other regiments sent to coerce them joined the mutineers. Twenty-five thousand soldiers variously composed of Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Finns and Ruthenians swept from place to place while prisons were stormed, prisoners released, the law courts set on fire, and the hives of the police smoked out.

A second telegram to the Czar brought the reply that he was bringing troops to quell the revolution and had turned over the army to the command of Ivanov. The Duma itself did not seem to fully realize the situation but elected an executive committee of twelve men to act as a provisional government.

Another committee, however, had been formed of workmen and social revolutionaries, which speedily gained a hearing. Every regiment that entered Petrograd went over to the revolution at once, and it quickly became apparent that the revolution had nothing to fear from the army.

The Committee of Twelve, who were moderates, tried to keep in harmony with the extremists of the Council of Labor. Everywhere was a babel of talk, argument and discussion of plans for the future. Moscow had accepted the revolution and the Czar was expected at any time.

On the 13th of March the first murders of a revolting character were carried out upon members of the police force. On March 14th the interest had practically centred in the relationship between the Executive Committee of the Duma and the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates—the Soviet—now so familiar to the world. The power was divided between these two bodies and it looked as if there might be civil war. Appeals by both were sent broadcast, among them one by the Socialists abolishing saluting and assuming authority to countermand the orders of the War Committee. The Duma issued an appeal calculated to attract the thinking man, but the appeals of the proletariat caught the fancy of hundreds of thousands of men who had tasted freedom for the first time in their lives.

On March 14th the Czar tried to reach Petrograd but his train was held up and later in the day, on the advice of the Duma and his guards, including the Grand Duke Nicholas, the Czar abdicated in favor of his brother as Regent.

The Moderates desired a constitutional monarchy; the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates clamoured for a republic. A coalition formed of representatives of all parties narrowly escaped disintegration when it was announced that a Regent had been appointed, but was saved by Kerenski. The Soviet, by a vote of 1,000 to 15 endorsed the new provisional government which then entered into office. On March 16th the Grand Duke Michael resigned the Regency, thus terminating the Romanof dynasty. The mediæval autocracy of Russia which had no place in the modern world collapsed from internal corruption. The revolution succeeded because there were none to defend the old régime.

On April 13th the first meeting of the Congress of Soviets from all over Russia was held. Though in favour of continuing the war the congress refused to permit the continuation of army discipline. The Bolsheviki (radical Socialist) minority, under Lenine, demanded an immediate cessation of hostilities in order to get on with their class warfare. There is no doubt that Russia's sufferings had been the most prolonged and her people rendered almost hopeless. To such there can be no further miseries, and therefore it is not surprising that the Russian people seized hold of a formula which would, it seemed to them, get rid of all their oppressors at one fell swoop. Bolshevism was the reaction of a people, crushed into the dust, against its oppressors. The Bolsheviki represented approximately one-fifth of the Russian people, and the establishment of Bolshevism meant that this fifth, the poorest and most ignorant element among the working classes, would rule. Their theory was that since workmen were the sole creators of wealth they should exclusively control all political power.

Lenine, the leader of the Bolsheviki, was a scion of a noble Russian family named Uljanov. In 1900 he formed the extreme section of the Social Democrats in Switzerland, and thereafter travelled from country to country carrying on his propaganda of anarchy. His aim was to destroy the old social structure so that the oppressed might be freed at least of their taskmasters. He had been consistent and honest enough in pursuing his ideals for many long years but was quite willing to accept German gold and German assistance to further his objects.

As the Provisional Government was now no longer able to carry on, a new one was formed including a larger proportion of Socialists. Almost immediately it issued a declaration of policy stating among other things its approval of the continuation of the war. The allied governments replied cordially and sent special missions to Russia to establish working connection with the new régime.

Meanwhile the army, undermined by propaganda, appeals and orders from the Soviets, steadily disintegrated. Alexeiev, the Chief of Staff, resigned, while Kornilov had gone from Petrograd to an army command. Kerensky, now Minister of War, believing that only an offensive would restore the army morale, toured the Russian front inspiring the troops with his burning eloquence. He succeeded in not only inspiring the troops but also the Socialists with the spirit of the offensive.

The all-Russian Congress of Soviets met on June 16th and among other things had explained to them the fact that the Russian

Government was taking steps to summon an inter-allied conference for the revision of treaties, with the exception of the agreement of London in which all the Allies had pledged themselves not to conclude a separate peace. The congress on the whole supported the Russian Ministry.

Meanwhile, on account of the stagnation on the Russian front, Austria and Germany had withdrawn numerous divisions and batteries to the Italian and western fronts. As the spirit of offensive, created by Kerensky, grew, Brussilov decided to launch his attack towards Lemberg and renew the waning spirit of the Russian people. On June 29th the bombardment of the enemy trenches on the Strypa began and on July 1st the infantry attacked. By July 2d the Russians had taken 18,000 prisoners and 29 guns.

The eleventh Russian army attacked north of the Tarnapol-Lemberg railway, while Kornilov pressed forward along the Black Bistritza capturing 10,000 prisoners in three days.

There the revolutionary armies halted. Lack of discipline, desertion and propaganda had done their work; the Russian army had fought its last battle. On July 19th, south of the Dniester, one Russian regiment abandoned its position and by night the Russian front for twenty-five miles was deserted, while the soldier rabble streamed homeward. The disease rapidly spread from the eleventh army to the seventh and eighth armies and the Russian army had practically ceased to exist. The gallant and devoted soldiers who had carried out one of the most marvellous retreats in history, who had shown themselves to be perhaps the greatest infantrymen in the world and who had been able to withstand untold privations and misery, had become a flock of sheep willing to follow the lead of the dishevelled orators of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council.

The revolution then underwent a stormy passage. Everywhere were riotous disturbances, and radicals, monarchists and anarchists seemed to be endeavouring to bring about a reign of terror. On July 20th Prince Lvov, the Premier, resigned and was succeeded by Kerensky who also remained Minister of War. In the new Government formed, Kerensky became virtual dictator, and his Government received the endorsation of the Congress of Soviets and the Council of Peasant Delegates. Kerensky, acting with much vigour, ordered the arrest of deserters and revolutionary agitators. On July 23d the reorganized, all-Russian Councils of Workmen's and Peasants' Organizations denounced the mutinous spirit of the army, but, as already stated, it came too late. The army was demoralized.

On July 25th the death penalty which had been done away with was restored in the army through Kerensky threatening to resign. Publications inciting to insubordination in the army were suppressed, and a resolution censuring Lenine was passed with an overwhelming majority by the Soviet. On August 23d Kornilov became commander-in-chief of the Russian army and it began to look as if the revolution were going to weather the forces attempting to undermine and destroy what it was trying to accomplish.

On August 26th, at Moscow, a conference of 2,500 delegates, representing the Duma, the Soviets, and the Zemstovs of organized Russia, gathered in council. Kerensky, in a lengthy speech, reviewed the situation and claimed that the time had come for the revolution to consolidate what it had gained.

Kornilov, the commander-in-chief of the army, was received with prolonged cheers. He stated that the Russian army must be regenerated at any cost and recommended certain reform measures to be carried out. He was supported by General Kaledines, leader of the Don Cossacks, who openly defied the Bolsheviki elements. The congress clearly showed the difference between the radical element represented by Kerensky and the moderate represented by the generals of the army.

The capture of Riga by the Germans, shortly after the Moscow Conference, produced a great crisis in Russia. The Provisional Government was charged with the failure of the army, and the Grand Duke Michael and others were arrested on charges of conspiracy. On September 9th, Lvov, a deputy of the Duma, called upon Kerensky, stating that he had been sent from General Kornilov, with the support of certain Duma members, industrial interests and other conservatives, to demand the surrender of all power into Kornilov's hands.

Kerensky promptly denounced Kornilov as a traitor and removed him from the position as commander-in-chief.

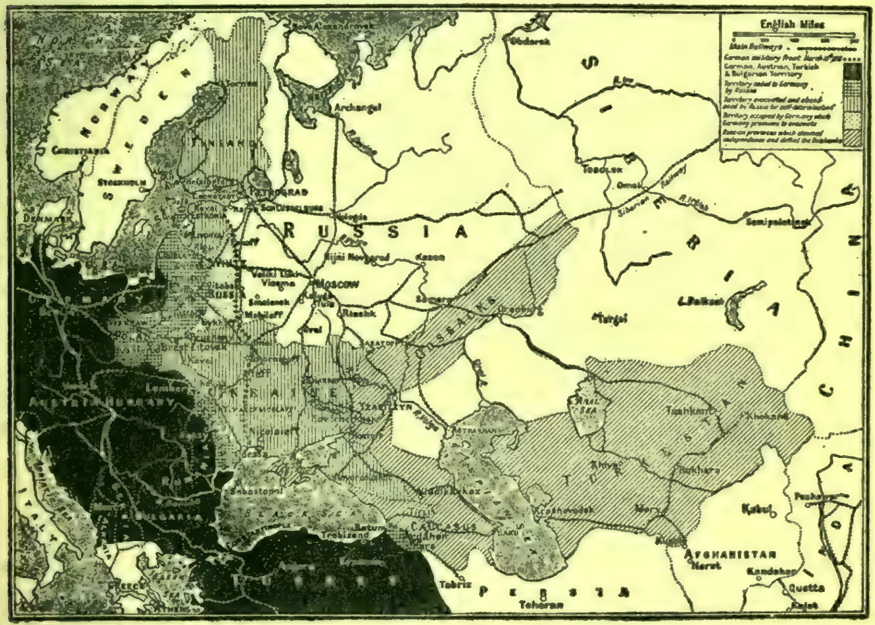
To this action Kornilov replied by advancing with an army against Petrograd. Kerensky thereupon declared martial law in Moscow and Petrograd, created himself commander-in-chief of

"YOU'RE NEXT!"

A company of British soldiers "making a dash for it" across an opening in a long sand-bagged trench in France.

the army and took measures to repel the rebels. The adventure failed to receive the support expected and Kornilov was arrested.

Towards the end of September at Moscow a democratic congress resolved to call a parliament consisting of 231 members; 110 of these were to be representatives of the Zemstovs and towns. It refused to sanction a coalition cabinet in which Constitutional Democrats should participate. Kerensky defied the congress and named a coalition cabinet in which several Constitutional Democrats were given portfolios.[7]


English Miles
Archangel
Petrograd
Moscow
R U S S I A
S I B E R I A
Stockholm
Christiania
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Samara
Omsk
Tobolsk
Semipalatinsk
Tashkent
Khokand
Bokhara
Khiva
Merv
Krasnovodsk
Kabul
Peshawar
Afghanistan
Herat
Kandahar
Quetta
Teheran
P E R S I A
Tabriz
Trebizond
Batum
Sebastopol
Odessa
Brest-Litovsk
Kovel
Lemberg
Austria-Hungary
Italy
Bulgaria
Denmark
Aral Sea
Caucasus
Turkestan
Black Sea
Kars
Ardahan
Tiflis
Kiev
Mohileff
Smolensk
Viasma
Orel
Riazan
Tula
Saratov
Tzaritzyn
Astrakhan
Rostov
Nicolaieff
Cossacks
Orenburg
China

Russia as Partitioned by the Brest-Litovsk Treaty

This new government declared that it intended to raise the fighting power of the army and navy, to fight anarchy and call a Constituent Assembly of 732 delegates elected by popular vote.

In the meantime the agitation against the Coalition Government continued and on November 1st Kerensky issued a statement to the Allies stating that Russia was worn out by the strain of war and claimed that since she had saved France and England from disaster early in the war, the Allies should now shoulder the burden.

A week later, on November 7th, an armed revolt against Premier

Kerensky and his coalition Government was precipitated by the Bolsheviki, led by Leon Trotzky, President of the Central Executive Committee of the Petrograd Council, and Lenine, the leader of the Bolsheviki. The telephone and telegraph companies, the State Bank and the Marie Palace were seized. The garrison of Petrograd went over to the Bolsheviki, and the Government troops were soon overpowered with the exception of the Military Cadets and the Women's Battalion which bravely held the Winter Palace for some hours.

On the same evening the Revolutionary Committee issued a proclamation denouncing Kerensky and his Government and called upon the soldiers of the army to arrest all officers who refused to join the revolution. They announced that an immediate peace would be brought about; that large proportional lands would be handed over to the peasants; that all authority was now in the hands of the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates and that the Constituent Assembly would be convoked.

The workmen and peasants at last controlled Russia. A Bolsheviki cabinet with Lenine as Premier and Trotzky as Foreign Minister was at once named. Kerensky raised a small force but was beaten by the Bolsheviki and fled. Russia began at once to go to pieces. The Ukraine and Finland declared their independence of the Central Government, as well as Siberia, the Caucasus, Lithuania, Bessarabia and other districts.

Arrangements for an armistice were immediately entered into with the Central Powers along the front from the Baltic to Asia Minor. During the chaotic condition which followed, the elections for the Constituent Assembly were held, and though the Bolsheviki were in the minority they persisted in carrying on.

The first conference in the negotiations for an armistice was held at the German headquarters at Brest-Litovsk. The Russian delegates included a sailor, a soldier and a librarian, and a suspension of hostilities was arranged for ten days.

Trotzky announced that the armistice would be signed only on condition that troops would not be transferred to other points. He also stated that the allied governments should declare the aims for which they were fighting. No official answers were made to this note.

At the meeting of the Constituent Assembly called for December 11th, less than 50 of the 600 delegates attended and the Bolsheviki influence seemed to be extending. On December 16th an armistice was signed to hold until January 14, 1918. The Bolsheviki were nothing if not thorough in their methods of destruction. Titles, distinctions and privileges were abolished. The property of the nobles, merchants and bourgeoisie was to be handed over to the state; all church lands, property, money and precious stones were also to pass into the hands of the state, while religious instruction was to cease in the schools. All loans and treasury bonds owned by foreign subjects in Russia or abroad were repudiated.

In spite of the formal protests of the allied governments, Lenine began overtures for a separate peace and the first meeting occurred on December 22, 1917. The terms not proving satisfactory to Russia, a second meeting was held at Brest-Litovsk on January 10, 1918.

The conference broke up in a clash over the evacuation of the Russian provinces. On January 24th the Russian delegates decided unanimously to reject the German terms. On January 29th a peace treaty between the Central Powers and the Ukraine was signed; the Bolsheviki yielded to the German demands but did not sign the treaty. On the day the armistice expired the armies of the Central Powers advanced and occupied several Russian cities and the Bolshevist Government announced that it would accept the German terms. A treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk on March 3, 1918, which robbed Russia of about one-quarter of her area in Europe. Trotzky refused to sign the treaty and resigned his office, becoming chairman of the Petrograd Labour Commune. The treaty was formally denounced by the premiers and foreign ministers of the allied governments, all of whom refused to recognize it.

CHAPTER V

With Our Backs to the Wall

American troops were now landing in France but still had to be trained in actual warfare. On February 5, 1918, it was announced that American battalions were for the first time occupying part of the western battle line, but the great rush of American troops had not yet begun, and it was not anticipated that their weight would be felt till the spring of 1919. The massing of German reserves on the western front, however, was proceeding rapidly and the enemy entertained high hopes that he might administer a knock-out blow before America's strength was fully available.

Throughout March the Allies waited for the blow to fall; it was generally agreed that its full weight would be felt against the British in the Somme area but confidence prevailed that any enemy assault in strength would be held.

THE FIRST OF THE DESPERATE GERMAN DRIVES

On Thursday, March 21st, the enemy struck at the vital part of the allied front with the object of separating the French and British armies. In all, sixty-four German divisions took part in the operations the first day. On the British front attacked there were twenty-nine infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions, of which nineteen infantry divisions were actually in the line. Launched on a 54-mile front the attack spread until a 63-mile front was involved. On the whole of the British front attacked during the month, seventy-three German divisions were engaged against the Third and Fifth British armies and the right of the First British army with a total of thirty-four infantry divisions. Before April 9th, four more British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions had been used against the enemy on this front.

At 5 A. M. an enemy bombardment of great intensity, with gas and high explosive shell from all kinds of artillery and trench mortars, was opened upon the British line from the Oise to the Scarpe River. A heavy white fog covered the ground, hiding from the artillery and machine gunners the S. O. S. signals sent up. The British defensive system consisted in the distribution of troops in depth. With this object, three defensive belts had been constructed at considerable distances from each other, but had not all been completed in the forward area. The advanced system consisted of a lightly held outpost screen covering our main positions. Since artillery and machine gun support was not available on account of the S. O. S. signals not being seen through the fog, the enemy forced his way into our foremost defensive zone. Our machine guns and forward field guns which had been placed to cover this zone with their fire were robbed almost entirely of their effect, and the detachments holding the outpost positions were consequently overwhelmed or surrounded.

The attack had been expected and battle stations manned; on all parts of the front the garrisons of redoubts and strong points held out with the greatest gallantry; acts of heroism which had never been excelled in the annals of British arms were performed in great numbers on that day, and many garrisons, surrounded by the enemy, fought on without any possibility of rescue until every man had been killed or captured. The weight of the enemy attack was too great however for the forces at our disposal and the enemy made steady progress, employing a rolling barrage fire timed at ten-minute intervals, alternating poison gas shells with shrapnel. The Germans broke our line by adopting the principle that lines of trenches and barbed wire were of little use if the defenders were dead, and that therefore the essential thing was to destroy the defenders.

On the Third British army front, though the defences had been broken at certain points, the army held. South of St. Quentin where the line was thin and reserves were not available the enemy made considerable progress and that same evening General Gough, commander of the Fifth British army, began to retreat. On March 22d the retreat was continued, the army fighting continuously with great valour. All the available reserves at the disposal of the fifth army had already been thrown into the fight, and, except for one French division and some French cavalry, no further support was in reach of the fighting line. On March 23d arrangements were made with the French commander-in-chief to take over as rapidly as possible the front held by the Fifth British army south of Peronne, and for the concentration of a strong force of French divisions on the southern portion of the battle front.

Measures were taken to obtain a special force of reserve divisions from the First and Second British armies for use as occasion might demand. The Canadian Corps was also held in readiness to counter-attack in case the enemy succeeded in piercing the British front.

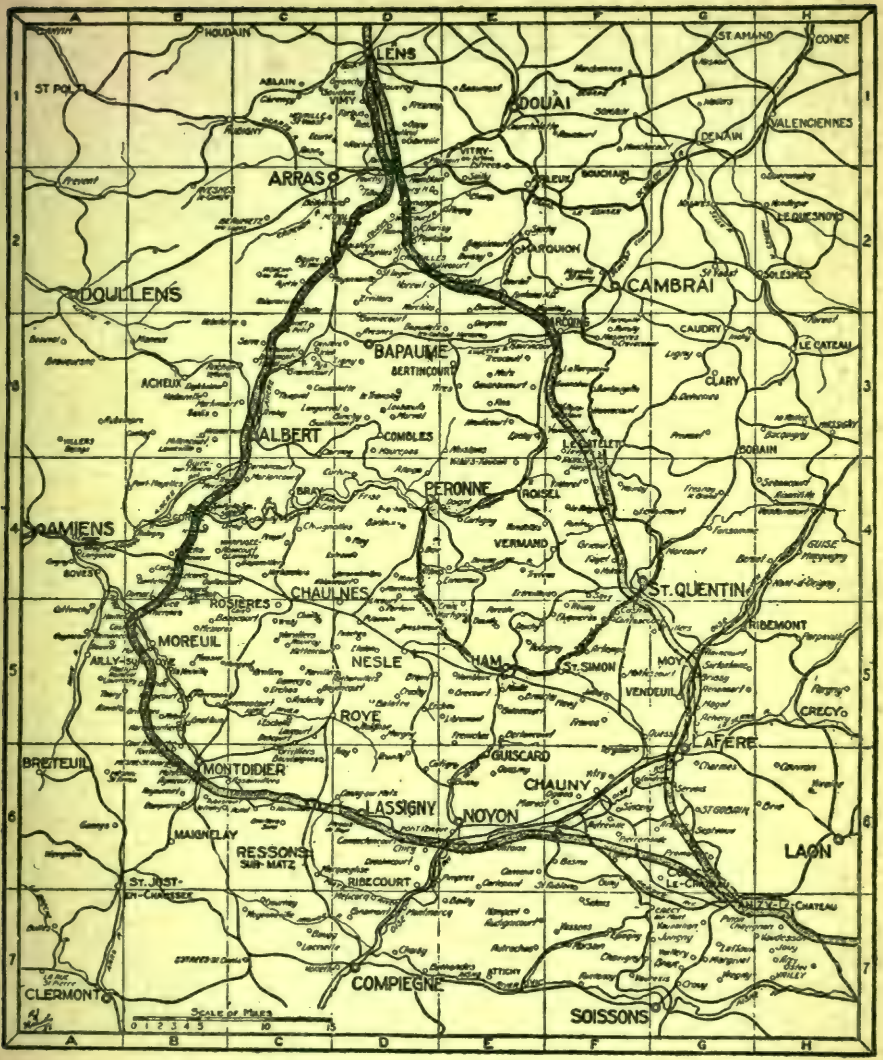
After two days of desperate fighting the British had fallen back from before St. Quentin as far as the Somme near Peronne. Ham was also lost together with Chaulny farther south on the Oise. Altogether about two-thirds of the territory evacuated in the German retreat was again overrun by the enemy under General von der Marwitz, who claimed 30,000 prisoners and 600 guns. At the northern end of the line attacked the Germans under von Buelow were substantially held, though they succeeded in capturing the Monchy Heights southeast of Arras.

Once over the Somme the southern retreat continued. Bapaume fell on March 24th, and Nesle and Noyon had to be abandoned. By March 26th the Allies had been pressed beyond their defence line of 1916. The railway junction at Chaulnes and the important centre of Roye had been evacuated and the enemy, after the fall of Montdidier, came within twelve miles of Amiens. The German effort was now, however, becoming spent, and progress became much slower as the Allies threw re-enforcements into the line. On April 5th, after the enemy had been heavily defeated and the fight had become practically stabilized, a fresh German thrust was made against the British in the Armentières section. In the Somme and Picardy offensive the enemy claimed 75,000 prisoners.

THE SECOND OFFENSIVE TOWARDS YPRES

As the Picardy offensive died down the enemy, on April 9th, launched a new attack on the Lys front with Armentières as its immediate objective. Following their initial success, which gave them Neuve Chapelle and Faugissant, the enemy forced the Portuguese division and the British backward for three and a half miles. Next day the front was attacked for another ten miles north of Armentières which thereby became outflanked on both sides.

Southward the enemy pushed forward to Estaires and Bac


LENS
DOUAI
VALENCIENNES
ARRAS
CAMBRAI
DOULLENS
BAPAUME
ALBERT
PERONNE
AMIENS
ST. QUENTIN
CHAULNES
MOREUIL
NESLE
HAM
ROYE
MONTDIDIER
LASSIGNY
NOYON
CHAUNY
LA FERE
LAON
COMPIEGNE
SOISSONS
CLERMONT
BRETEUIL
Scale of Miles
0 1 2 3 4 5 10 15

DETAIL MAP OF THE DESPERATE PICARDY DRIVE

Showing the ground covered by the Germans in the drive launched by them on March 21, 1918. Though they made a deep dent in the allied line, they failed in their main object which was the separating of the French and British armies.

St. Maur and on the north in Ploegsteert Woods. Armentières was filled with gas shells and had to be abandoned on April 10th. The enemy had already claimed 20,000 prisoners and 200 guns. On April 11th the enemy had crossed the Lawe, a tributary of the Lys and the threat to our communications became a grave one. In the afternoon a gap was forced in our line southeast of Bailleul. In the evening a brigade of the Thirty-third British division, together with a body of cyclists, a pioneer battalion, and every available man from schools and re-enforcement camps came into action there and re-established the line.

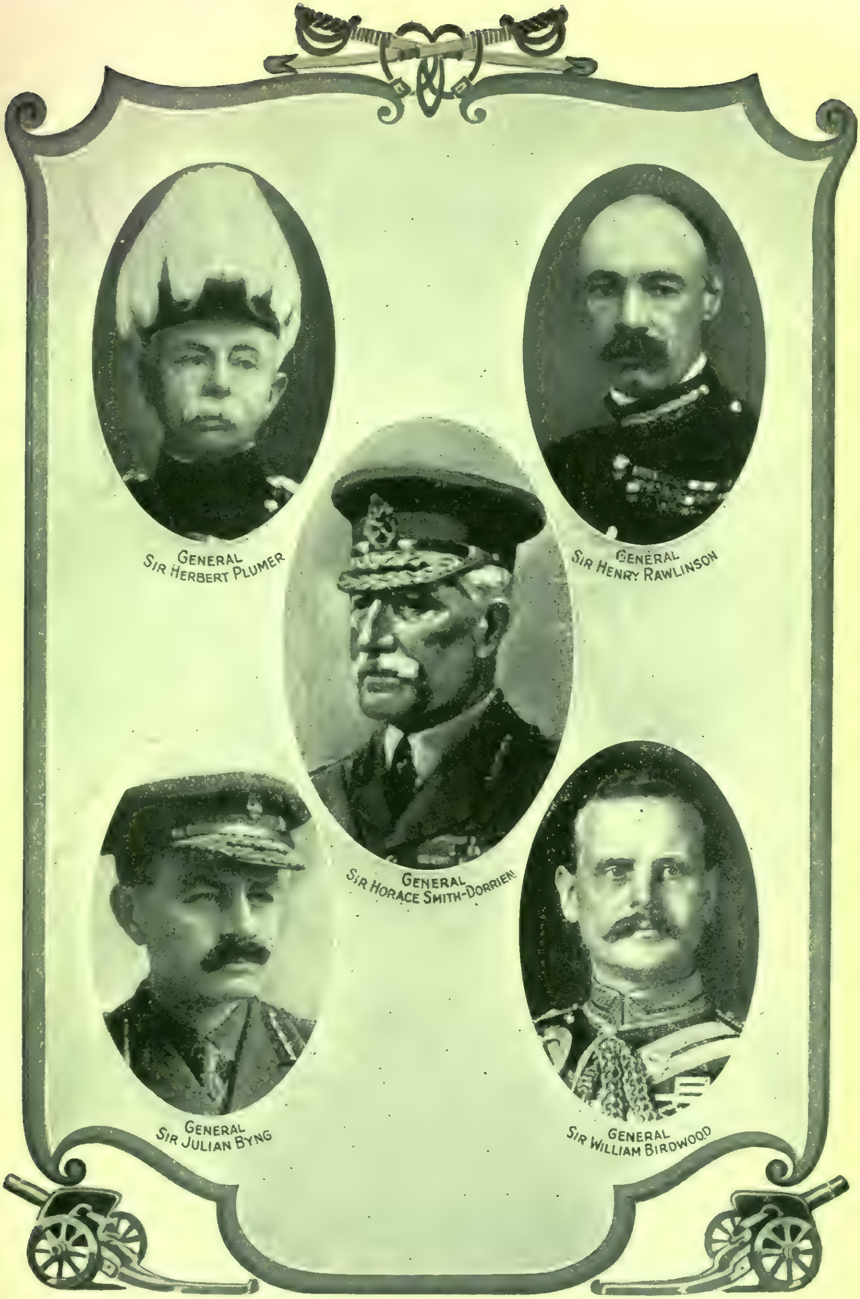
Next day in front of the Nieppe Forest determined attacks, with the aid of armoured cars and field guns at point-blank range, were made upon our lines. The fighting then was of the most bitter description, the enemy forcing his way past our posts by sheer weight of numbers so that our men were firing to the front and rear.

The line here had become very attenuated and the fighting of the British, particularly the Fourth Guards brigade, was marvellous. The gallant stand of these troops enabled the First Australian division to detrain and enter the line; the road to Hazebrouk was then definitely closed and our line established along the edge of the Nieppe Forest. The action of the troops in fighting in the Lys Valley was particularly noteworthy because practically the whole of them had been brought straight out of the Somme battlefield to rest and reorganize.

"WITH OUR BACKS TO THE WALL"

The desperate nature of the crisis may be judged by the fact that on April 12th Sir Douglas Haig issued to the troops a memorable Order of the Day which explained that the enemy was evidently attempting to separate the British and French armies and break through to the Channel ports. His order concluded with the words:

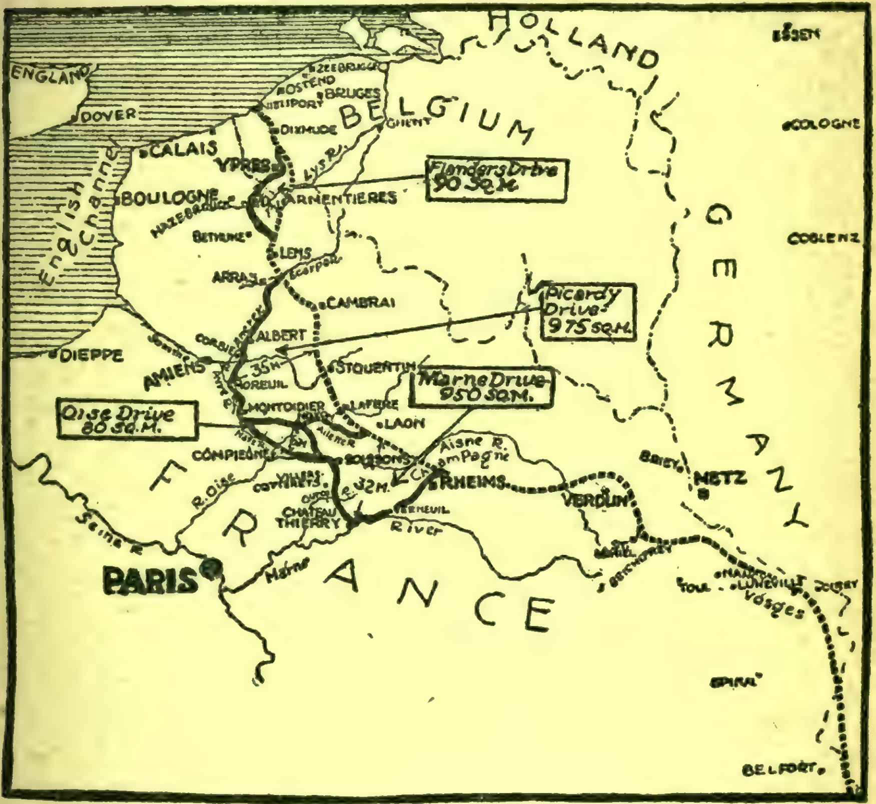
> There is no other course open to us but to fight it out. Every position must be held to the last man; there must be no retirement. With our backs to the wall and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight on to the end.
>
> The safety of our homes and the freedom of mankind depend alike upon the conduct of each one of us at this critical moment.


GENERAL
SIR HERBERT PLUMER
GENERAL
SIR HENRY RAWLINSON
GENERAL
SIR HORACE SMITH-DORRIEN
GENERAL
SIR JULIAN BYNG
GENERAL
SIR WILLIAM BIRDWOOD

FAMOUS BRITISH GENERALS

General Smith-Dorrien, British Corps Commander in the famous retreat from Mons; Generals Plumer, Rawlinson and Byng, Commanders on the Western Front; General Birdwood, Commander of the Australian-New Zealand troops at Gallipoli.

The enemy was now in possession of Bailleul, however, and was swarming over the slopes of the famous Messines Ridge. Four days of stubborn fighting ensued before that line was overrun, and its loss compelled us to withdraw from Passchendaele, Gheluvelt, Poelcapelle and Langemarck, all obtained at such a heavy price in the awful winter fighting of 1917.


HOLLAND
ENGLAND
DOVER
ZEEBRUGGE
OSTEND
BRUGES
NIEUPORT
DIXMUDE
BELGIUM
GHENT
CALAIS
YPRES
Lys R.
Flanders Drive 90 Sq.M.
English Channel
BOULOGNE
HAZEBROUCK
ARMENTIERES
BETHUNE
LENS
ARRAS
Scarpe R.
CAMBRAI
Picardy Drive 975 Sq.M.
ALBERT
CORBIE
DIEPPE
Somme
AMIENS
35M.
ST. QUENTIN
MOREUIL
Marne Drive 950 Sq.M.
MONTDIDIER
LA FERE
NOYON
LAON
Oise Drive 80 Sq.M.
Ailette R.
COMPIEGNE
SOISSONS
Aisne R.
Champagne
RHEIMS
VILLERS-COTTERETS
32M.
Ourcq R.
CHATEAU THIERRY
VERNEUIL
River
Marne
R. Oise
Seine R.
PARIS
FRANCE
VERDUN
BRIEY
METZ
ESSEN
COLOGNE
COBLENZ
GERMANY
TOUL
NANCY
LUNEVILLE
Vosges
EPINAL
BELFORT

GAINS MADE BY GERMANS IN FINAL OFFENSIVE

In the south Merville had gone but every effort to widen out the southern corner of the salient at Givenchy was prevented by the magnificent defence of the First British army. In the sector from La Bassée past Lens to Arras the old line, anchored by Vimy, held firm. This prevented the collapse which would have marked the breaking down of the angle between the two German salients, and the widening of these into one huge depression.

Failing to break through the angle at Givenchy the enemy endeavoured to enlarge his gains within the newly-won territory. On April 24th he gained Villers-Bretonneux, and in the north that great bastion, Kemmel Hill, six miles southwest of Ypres. The ridges behind Kemmel, however, were held, effectively blocking the Ypres road. On May 8th another strong attempt to take Ypres failed, thus bringing to an end the invasion in the north.

Immediately the German attacks ceased the Allies began to nibble at the enemy line, improving their positions in preparation for the inevitable great counter-offensive.

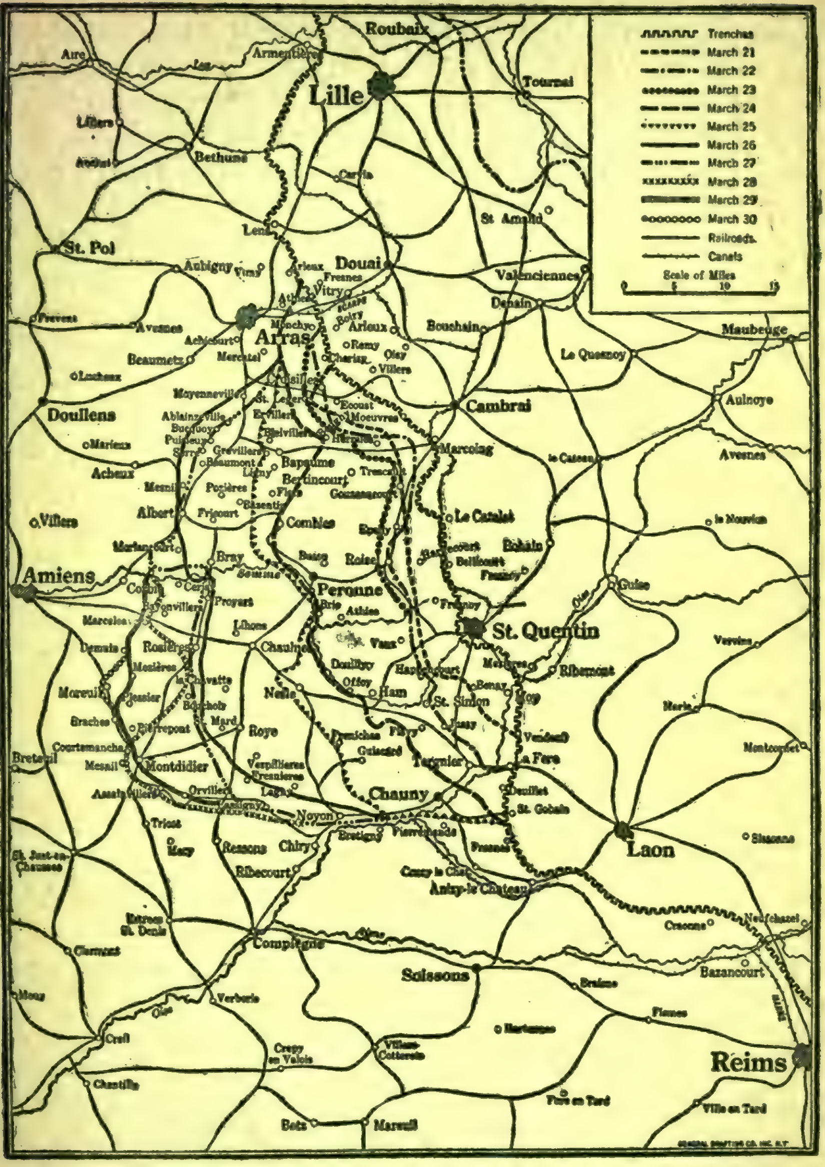
THE DRIVE AT PARIS

The third and last of the series of great attacks which constituted the last desperate German offensive began on May 27th. This tremendous assault along the ridge on the heights north of the Aisne River was supported by tanks and was pressed regardless of losses. On the first night they had stormed the Chemin des Dames Ridge; on May 28th the enemy was across the Aisne on an 18-mile front and had forced passages across the Vesle, twelve miles forward of the line they had left two days before.

On May 29th Soissons fell and the enemy thrust towards the Marne along the Rheims-Paris railway. On May 31st Amiens, suffering badly from shell attacks and air bombardments, was evacuated by the civilian population. Rheims was being severely pressed on both sides and the enemy's advanced posts were on the Marne along a 10-mile front, from Château-Thierry to Dormans. The enemy had advanced twenty-six miles in four days, had claimed 45,000 prisoners, 400 guns, thousands of machine guns, a complete aerodrome and vast quantities of stores.

Long-range guns, capable of throwing a shell seventy miles, were now bombarding Paris and yet Foch held his hand. No serious attempt was made to counter-attack on promising sectors of the front elsewhere in order to relieve the pressure. The master strategist was patiently biding his time and developing his army of manœuvre.

On June 2d the enemy had arrived within forty miles of Paris on the edge of the Forest of Villers-Cotterets. There and between Noyon and Soissons the French began counter-attacking and mastering the situation. Between Rheims and Dormans,


Trenches
March 21
March 22
March 23
March 24
March 25
March 26
March 27
March 28
March 29
March 30
Railroads.
Canals
Scale of Miles
0
5
10
15
Roubaix
Armentières
Lille
Tournai
Aire
Lillers
Bethune
Carvin
Lens
St. Amand
St. Pol
Aubigny
Douai
Vitry
Valenciennes
Denain
Arras
Bouchain
Maubeuge
Le Quesnoy
Beaumetz
Doullens
Cambrai
Aulnoye
Marcoing
Avesnes
Acheux
Bapaume
Le Cateau
Albert
Combles
Le Catelet
Bohain
Villers
Amiens
Bray
Peronne
Guise
St. Quentin
Ribemont
Moreuil
Nesle
Ham
St. Simon
Roye
Montdidier
Breteuil
La Fere
Chauny
Noyon
St. Gobain
Laon
Ribecourt
Coucy le Chateau
Compiègne
Soissons
Clermont
Verberie
Creil
Chantilly
Villers Cotterets
Reims
Betz
Mareuil
Neufchatel
Bazancourt
Somme
Aisne
Oise

How the Enemy Advanced From Day to Day
Map showing the successive gains made in the first desperate drive.

Franco-British troops were holding firm, new French divisions began coming into the line and the Americans had appeared at Veuilly-la-Potterie, northwest of Château-Thierry—the nearest point to Paris.

The Germans on June 9th made another violent effort to widen their front between the two big salients by attacking between Montdidier and Noyon on a front of twenty-two miles. Twenty-five German divisions were employed for this purpose, and though a few miles were gained on a narrow front, and the enemy claimed another 13,000 prisoners, it became evident that the German effort was exhausting itself. The winning back of ground northwest of Château-Thierry and the appearance of Italian troops in this area were significant indications of Foch's future intention.

On June 18th assaults against the city of Rheims failed. From that time on the allied armies began counter-attacking on a small scale all along the line. In June the British alone captured nearly 2,000 prisoners on the western front, the French took 1,000 prisoners in one operation and numerous small allied successes were gained.

On July 15th the enemy again began an offensive on a large scale, the sector chosen being the front on both sides of Rheims about twenty-five miles in each direction. Thirty-five German divisions were employed. On the second day they crossed the Marne a few miles east of Château-Thierry, but after pressing back American troops, they were driven back by them with the loss of a thousand prisoners. East of Rheims they were also brought to a standstill and the great German offensive came to an end.

THE BRITISH ARMY REORGANIZED

While intense activity prevailed behind the British lines after our defeat the fighting troops were not idle, and in the Lys salient particularly the damage caused to the enemy by our artillery was very great. During the month of May, infantry activity on the front of the Second and Fourth British armies improved our positions by the capture of places like Merris and Ridge Wood.

Two months had worked marvels in the British army. Drafts of 325,000 vigorous young men from England and Scotland had largely been absorbed, and the number of effective infantry divisions had risen from forty-five to fifty-two; while in artillery, we were stronger than we had ever been. Large operations now became possible to strengthen our defences and fit them in with future schemes.

The first of these, on the 28th of June, drove the enemy from the edge of Nieppe Forest on a 6,000-yard front. On July 4th the Australian corps recaptured our old positions east of Hamel and, co-operating with sixty tanks, cleared the Villers-Bretonneux Plateau. In this affair 1,500 prisoners were taken. North of the Lys Australian patrols captured 223 German prisoners in two days, showing that the enemy morale had declined. On July 19th the Ninth division took Meteren with 359 prisoners.

By the end of July the reconstitution of the British armies had been completed. The spirit of the men was as high as ever, and the success of the various local operations had had a good effect.

While our troops were still fighting southwest of Rheims, a fresh battle had broken out on June 7th on the French front between Noyon and Montdidier. Anticipating a German attack east and west of Rheims, General Foch withdrew the whole of the eight French divisions in Flanders to the south. In addition, General Foch asked that four British divisions be moved, two of them south of the Somme, and two astride that river. On July 13th, Marshal Foch asked that these four divisions be despatched to take their place behind the junction of the allied armies. Accordingly the Twenty-second British corps was despatched to the French front.

It was perfectly clear that Germany had intended to crush our first line with overwhelming masses and push through into the open country beyond. This plan counted upon the breaking down of the allied resistance at the start. Captured orders indicated that the enemy anticipated that the allied resistance would weaken as he pressed forward. His effort and his calculations failed. Our line was pressed back but not broken. Instead of weakening, our defence became stronger as the enemy advanced farther from his bases. His progress, instead of increasing from day to day gradually slowed down. The Allies had retired steadily with equanimity, firmly convinced that the enemy had thrown his last card on the table in the great gamble for world power. His reckless tactics and huge losses failed to bring about that great object for which he had striven—the defeat of the allied armies, and his very failure to achieve that object was in itself a colossal defeat. For it finally demonstrated to the German staff and the German soldier that in spite of their vaunted "efficiency" they were incapable of destroying the allied armies. The superior morale of the Allies and their faith in the justice of their cause would not even admit the possibility of defeat.

At the end of April, 1918, many cheering messages poured in to the Field Marshal, Sir Douglas Haig, including ones from King George, the Governor-General of Canada and President Wilson.

King George sent the following message to Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig:

> I can assure you that the fortitude, courage and self-sacrifice with which the troops under your command continue so heroically to resist superior numbers are realized by me and my people. The Empire stands calm and confident in its soldiers. May God bless them and give them strength in this time of trial.

Sir Douglas Haig sent the following reply to the King's message:

> Your Majesty's gracious message has given universal encouragement to the whole army in France. I beg Your Majesty to accept our respectful and grateful thanks and the assurance that we will steadfastly continue to do our utmost to deserve the inspiring confidence Your Majesty and the people throughout the Empire have placed in us in this hour of national stress.

President Wilson cabled Field Marshal Haig, congratulating him on the British stand against the German offensive, and predicting a final allied victory.

The President's message read:

> May I not express to you my warm admiration of the splendid steadfastness and valour with which your troops have withstood the German onset and the perfect confidence all Americans feel that you will win a secure and final victory.

Sir Douglas cabled in reply:

> Your message of generous appreciation of the steadfastness and valour of our soldiers in the great battle now raging has greatly touched us all. Please accept our heartfelt thanks. One and all believe in the justice of our cause, and are determined to fight on without counting the cost until the freedom of mankind is safe.

PLAN OF THE ALLIES' OFFENSIVE

At the middle of July the definite collapse of the enemy offensive and the striking success of the allied counter-offensive south of the Aisne effected a complete change in the whole military situation. The German army had made its effort and had failed. While its maximum strength had now passed, the allied strength had steadily increased through the incorporation of the fresh reserves.

The British army was now ready for the offensive and the new American army, under General Pershing, was growing rapidly.

Divisions of American troops had been trained with the French army and altogether the United States had 2,000,000 men in France. Though most of them yet lacked actual experience and were not available for front line work, their actual presence in France had a tremendous moral effect on both the enemy and allied armies. Those in the field had already given convincing proof of their fighting ability.

ON THE ITALIAN FRONT

At the end of October, 1917, Germany was clearly alarmed at the prospect of her Austrian ally's being overwhelmed by the Italians, and, in spite of the allied offensive at Ypres and on the Aisne, managed to send six divisions, consisting probably of 100,000 men, as re-enforcements to her ally. The Austrians had also rushed forces from the Russian front to the Italian theatre while the Italian front was taken over by the German General Staff.

When the Austro-German armies attacked the Italians on October 24th their success was immediate. As on the Russian front, success came largely through propaganda, for the enemy had carried on a campaign to undermine Italian morale unprecedented for boldness and mendacity. The British and French successes paled into insignificance beside the terrible defeat inflicted upon the Italian army on the Upper Isonzo.

There was no doubt that a desperate effort was being made to put Italy, like Russia, out of the war. Accordingly all the relief possible was given by hammering away on the Belgian front. In order to stiffen the Italian army British and French troops were despatched to Italy arriving in time to participate in the battle along the Piave River.

During the retreat, largely occasioned by treachery in the second Italian army, that army alone lost 100,000 men in prisoners and 700 guns. A million men, encumbered by all the impediments of an army, and all the fleeing civilians of the country, struggled over the choked roads leading to the Tagliamento River. Nothing during the war had been seen like it. By a narrow margin the third Italian army reached and crossed the Tagliamento River, losing some divisions and 500 guns, and for a moment there was a pause. Two hundred thousand men and 1,800 guns had already been lost.

By November 10th the Italian armies, under Cadorna, were everywhere back on the Piave River, along which it had been determined to make a stand. A desperate struggle then ensued, but the Austrian offensive was stayed with the aid of the Twelfth French corps, the Fourteenth British corps, under Sir Herbert Plumer, and French and British batteries.

On November 5th the Prime Ministers of Great Britain and France and their staffs met Premier Orlando of Italy at the Italian village of Rapallo and there evolved an Allied Council to be stationed at Versailles, which eventually resulted in a unified western command under General Foch.

By the New Year the front had quieted down and the Austrian commanders were left once more to their own devices by the Germans, who were planning their huge offensive on the western front. One great result of this debacle was the welding of Italy into a closer union; her military power had been badly shaken, much of her army equipment and artillery had been lost, but Italy rose splendidly to the task of reorganization, and with the help of British and French troops who had arrived in December to stiffen the Italian army, was able not only to heroically meet the next Austrian attack but to completely turn the tables on the enemy and eventually force surrender.

On June 15th, 1918, the Austrians attacked along the entire Italian line eastward from the Asiago Plateau to the sea. They succeeded in crossing the Piave at two points and claimed 10,000 prisoners, but it was clear on the third day that their offensive was a failure. The Piave River suddenly rose in flood, washing away the Austrian bridges and, attempting to recross, the enemy was severely beaten, with the loss of 16,000 prisoners.

Canadian Official Photograph.

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INTO THE FIGHT FOR CAMBRAI

Canadian Scottish going up to the front with full equipment in readiness for the great Cambrai battle.

The attack died down but the Italian army steadily worked away, clearing the whole Piave delta and enlarging the zone for the protection of Venice. In these operations 7,000 more prisoners and sixty-three guns were taken.

Throughout the heavy actions on the French and Belgian fronts and the period of the Turkish and Bulgarian breakdown, the Italian army was kept by the allied commander-in-chief standing idle, waiting for the right moment to strike.

THE CONQUEST OF RUMANIA

It will be remembered that in the spring of the year 1918 the Central Powers carried everything before them in Western Europe and the Balkans.

In the autumn of 1917, though our Russian ally had become demoralized, the Rumanian army resisted the German army, under von Mackensen, with desperate valour. With the Russian defection, however, part of the front originally held by 500,000 Russians had to be taken over and held by the Rumanian army, already weakened by earlier fighting.

The peace signed by the Ukraine on February 10th, 1918, followed by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk on March 3d, left Rumania completely isolated and helpless. Delegates from Rumania were then summoned to German headquarters and given four days to surrender. Most of the Rumanian generals believed they could fight for another month, the period for which they were supplied with ammunition. The Rumanian Cabinet resigned and the new Government agreed that there was nothing to do but to acquiesce in the onerous terms imposed by Germany, and on May 7th the Treaty of Bucharest was signed. Among other clauses of the treaty the Germans stipulated that a new Commission to control the Danube River be set up, from which Commission representatives of Great Britain, France and Italy were to be excluded.

WAR AIMS

The Russian revolution followed by the capture of Russia by the Bolshevik element; the Italian disaster on the Isonzo and the Cambrai misadventure had caused a great reversal of hopes among the Allies and stimulated the enemy to make renewed efforts. Among the Allies there was much heart-searching and self-examination, moods which the enemy endeavored to take advantage of to sow the seeds of disunion.

A discussion as to war aims was launched by a letter from Lord Lansdowne who suggested the possibility of a peace by negotiation. His proposals were greeted with scorn except by the professional British pacifist element. In the American Congress, on December 4th, President Wilson stated that peace could not even be discussed with the present rulers of Germany. On December 14th, Lloyd George said that a real peace involved reparation for damage done as well as punishment of the wrongdoer.

The Labour Party drew up a memorandum of war aims which was accepted by the Socialist and Inter-Allied Labour Conference held in London shortly afterward. The publication by the Bolsheviki of various secret treaties of the Allies showed clearly that the aims of 1915 were no longer the aims of 1917, for in the interval a certain internationalism had grown up. It was recognized that neither the destruction of the enemy nor readjustments involving the maintenance of huge armies could result in peace and security; that could only result from some international organization such as a League of Nations with power to keep any refractory nations in order.

The British Premier, Mr. Lloyd George, on January 5, 1918, issued a statement declaring what Britain was fighting for. It included these points:

1. The complete restoration of Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro, France, Italy and Rumania.
2. Reparation for all losses by those nations.
3. Restoration of Alsace-Lorraine.
4. Independence of Poland.
5. Self-government for Austro-Hungarian nationalities.
6. Satisfaction of Italy and Rumania of legitimate irridentist claims.
7. Internationalization of sea route between Mediterranean and Black Seas.
8. Recognition of national character of Arabia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine.
9. German African colonies to be at disposal of a conference.
10. Reparation for damages done in defiance of international law, particularly as regards submarine campaign.
11. The creation of an international organization to limit armaments and reduce the possibility of war.

This statement of Lloyd George's would have proved much stronger had he made the creation of the international organization the main feature of the code and the principle upon which the various allied demands were to be related and eventually secured.

Three days later, on January 8th, President Wilson issued a similar document embodying his now famous fourteen points. These were:

1. Open covenants of peace and no secret diplomacy in the future.
2. Absolute freedom of navigation in peace and war outside territorial waters, except when seas may be closed by international action.
3. Removal as far as possible of all economic barriers.
4. Adequate guarantees for the reduction of national armaments.
5. An absolutely impartial adjustment of colonial claims, the interests of the peoples concerned having equal weight with the claims of the Government whose title is to be determined.
6. All Russian territory to be evacuated and Russia given full opportunity for self-development, the Powers aiding.
7. Complete restoration of Belgium in full and free sovereignty.
8. All French territory freed, and the wrong done by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine righted.
9. Readjustment of Italian frontiers on lines of nationality.
10. People of Austria-Hungary accorded an opportunity of autonomous development.
11. Rumania, Serbia and Montenegro evacuated, Serbia given access to the sea, relations of Balkan states settled on lines of allegiance and nationality.
12. Non-Turkish nationalities in the Ottoman Empire assured of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles to be permanently free to all ships.
13. An Independent Polish State.
14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

With the exception of those referring to the freedom of the seas and open covenants of peace, the fourteen points were practically the same as those given out by Mr. Lloyd George some days before.

To the general features of Mr. Wilson's document the German and Austrian Governments agreed but refused to consider the specific questions such as the restoration of Belgium, Alsace-Lorraine and those referring to the Balkan States, Turkey and Poland. Military preparations were then well under way which made serious talk about conditions of peace from the Allies ridiculous to the German High Command.

CABINET CHANGES

In all of the warring nations there was more or less trouble. The United States had to cope with the activities of enemy aliens within their borders. In Austria there was a general strike of workmen and in Germany there were serious strikes at Berlin, Hamburg, Munich and Kiel, all of which were put down with armed force. In France the ministry fell and the President boldly entrusted M. Clemenceau—"The Tiger"—with the responsibility of forming a new Government.

In Great Britain the war cabinet of Lloyd George in spite of mistakes had on the whole done well. The army had been increased by 821,000 men, while 731,000 men and 804,000 women had been placed in civil employment in Great Britain. Six hundred and twenty-four thousand more tons of shipping had been produced than in the previous year, and the amount of goods brought to the country by 100 tons of shipping had jumped from 106 to 150 tons. The number of guns in France had been increased by thirty per cent, and the number of aeroplanes was two and a half times as great as in the year preceding.

The work of Lord Rhondda and Mr. Clynes in controlling the supply and distribution of staple food supplies under extraordinarily difficult conditions was one of the tasks brilliantly carried out by those able men. The heavy work carried on by Lord Rhondda caused his death, and he was mourned by the whole people who knew of his magnificent work.

In the navy Sir John Jellicoe was succeeded by Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, who had been in charge of the convoy which carried the first Canadian contingent to Europe. The sinkings of merchant ships had become less than the number being launched and the submarine menace was steadily being overcome.

The Zeppelin had been replaced by aeroplanes for the bombing of England and a considerable amount of damage was done though it had no effect on the maintenance of our air service on the continent. An Air Ministry had been established in England and the Royal Naval Air Service and Royal Flying Corps were united in one service known as the Royal Air Force.

The new Allied Council at Versailles, whose business was to co-ordinate military action on the western front, and prepare recommendations for the various governments, consisted of General

Cadorna for Italy, General Foch for France, General Sir Henry Wilson for Great Britain, and General Bliss for the United States. These distinguished generals were speedily called away to other work and as the result of an attempt to increase the power of the Versailles Council, Sir William Robertson, Chief of the Imperial General Staff, resigned. His place was taken by Sir Henry Wilson, a man of broad experience and marked natural gifts, who was *persona grata* to the French Staff.

There was much acrimonious discussion in Great Britain as to whether the politicians were overriding the military authorities or not. On the whole, though the retention of too many trained divisions in England was a constant source of irritation to the British Staff, there was no evidence to indicate that a single move had been made on any British front except on the advice of the British General Staff.

On April 18, 1918, a month after the great German offensive had been launched, Lord Derby, Secretary of State for War, became British Ambassador to France and was succeeded by that remarkably intellectual administrator and devoted public servant, Lord Milner.

CHAPTER VI

The Glorious Affair of Zeebrugge

The little group of islands in the North Sea known as Great Britain, with a total area of 121,000 square miles, could be easily set down in old Southern Ontario. Yet it is the centre of a commonwealth of nations upon whose vast territories the sun never sets. Its 13,150,000 square miles of territory girdle the globe and 450,000,000 souls acknowledge the democratic sovereignty of the British Crown.

Not one inch of British territory was invaded by Germany during the four years of war—because the British navy commanded the seas.

In 1918, between April 1st and July 1st, 900,000 United States soldiers crossed the ocean to France. That is an average of 300,000 a month or 10,000 a day. With the exception of 291 lives lost when the Germans torpedoed the *Tuscania*, the crossing was made as if the U-boats had never existed.

Two-thirds of those American soldiers crossed in vessels of the British Merchant Marine. The transportation of those American troops was possible because the British navy had commanded the sea since the 4th of August, 1914. Had it not been for the British fleet the United States would have had to face practically single-handed a Europe of which Germany was the indisputable master.

"What is the navy doing?" was a question thoughtlessly asked by British and Americans alike during the war. The navy worked in silence and obscurity. Day and night, in sunshine and storm, in summer and winter, however, the British navy was alert and watchful.

The British navy effectually baffled the hopes and plans of Germany to win the war with U-boats.

Blockaded Germany and bottled up the German navy.

Drove German commerce from the sea.

Preserved the British Empire from invasion.

Brought Germany to the verge of starvation.

Enabled the British Empire to wage war in seven different theatres.

Kept the high seas open for the legitimate service of mankind.

Made ultimate defeat of Germany absolutely certain, no matter how long delayed.

In the light of these facts and figures the conclusion is forced upon one that but for the British fleet the war might have been over and won by Germany years before. Unless the Allies had been completely triumphant at the outset of the war at sea no effort on land would have saved them. The British fleet is mainly responsible for that triumph.

Lord Fisher who, during the war resigned as First Sea Lord after a quarrel with Winston Churchill, had long before earned the undying gratitude of his country.

He revolutionized methods of naval warfare; he produced the first Dreadnought: he trained the navy to fight in the North Sea.

Lord Fisher was steeped in the Nelson tradition; probably no one except Mahan had ever studied Nelson's strategy like he had.

He found that the great principles of naval warfare were better understood by Nelson than any other man before or since. Hence the remark credited to Fisher that Nelson was the greatest man who ever lived. It was Nelson who said: "Your battle ground should be your drilling ground," and when he was chief of the British navy, Fisher put that precept into practice. Every ship on foreign service was called home on some pretext or other to do its patrol work in the North Sea.

Fisher said: "I wanted it to nose about in the fogs, smelling different patches of pea-soupiness, sniffing and peering until it could say, 'Hullo, here; the Dogger Bank,' and feel it had met a friend. What hope would the fleet have had of victory called from the bright sunshine and blue air of the Mediterranean to fight a battle in the fogs of the North Sea?"

He added: "There they were with white-topped caps and linen trousers, with beautiful polished decks and shining brass work, living in a yachtsman's paradise, and God was saying every hour as loud as Sinai's thunder that Armageddon would be fought in the pea-soup of the North Sea."

In 1908 Admiral Fisher put into writing his firm conviction that Germany and Great Britain would be at war in 1914—when the Kiel Canal improvements were completed. In his opinion in regard to naval matters he apparently had the royal support of King Edward. It was doubtless the King's influence with France that made it possible for British warships to be withdrawn from the Mediterranean and transferred to the North Sea.

To Lord Fisher is given the credit of producing the Dreadnought—a type of ship that was fast, yet heavily armoured, and would carry heavier guns than any other ship. The Dreadnought revolutionized naval strategy for it rendered all existing types of battleships obsolete. And when the Dreadnought was being carefully reproduced by German shipbuilders, Lord Fisher was evolving the Superdreadnought which put the Dreadnought out of date and compelled Germany to enlarge the Kiel Canal to accommodate the newer type of vessel.

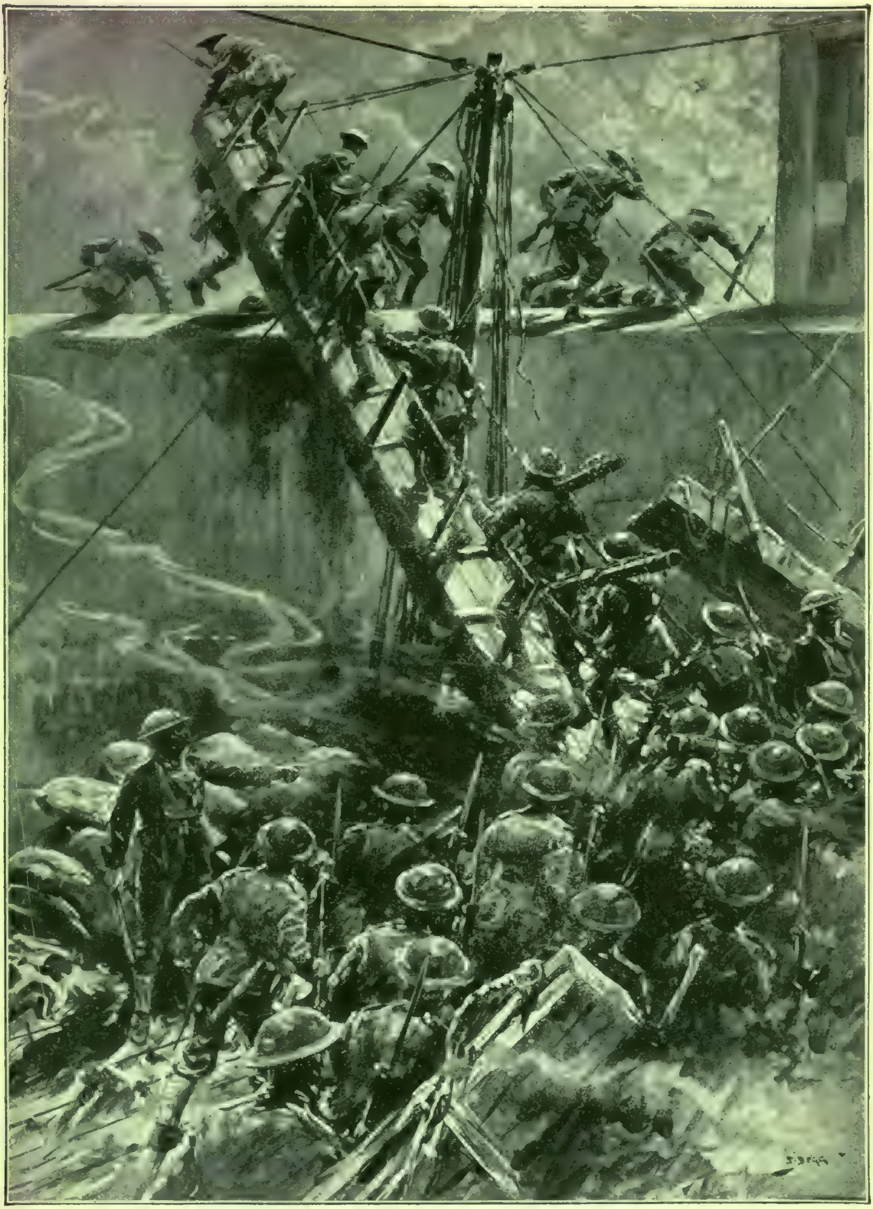
It was Great Britain's salvation to control the seas, for on that control her very existence depended. When war broke out, therefore, it was to be expected that British naval ingenuity would be able to defeat any devices of the enemy. As will be seen in the chapter on the battle of Jutland, the British did not give the Germans sufficient credit for possessing scientific and engineering skill—the possession of which enabled German naval engineers to evolve several devices that counted heavily in actual naval fighting.

Nevertheless the ingenuity and resourcefulness which had been such a marked characteristic of British seamen all through the centuries still stood them in good stead.

The elaboration of floating platforms capable of carrying the heaviest naval guns and manœuvring in shallow water was a complete surprise. And when they enfiladed the German lines in Belgium for six miles inland as early as the autumn of 1914, they ruined the German plan to win the road by the sea to Calais. Later on the same type of ship, of such shallow draft that they could not be torpedoed effectively, replaced capital ships of the British navy in the waters off Gallipoli.

There were other secrets, well kept, which had much to do with the failure of the German submarine campaign.

With German science and German skill concentrated on win-



STORMING THE MOLE AT ZEEBRUGGE

One of the most brilliant and spectacular feats in naval history was the British blocking of the submarine harbor at Zeebrugge. The picture shows one of the detachments of marines that braved the terrific German defense fire and swarmed up the mole that protects the harbor, planting explosives that made a great breach and let the tides in.

ning the war by submarines, it looked at one time as if the Germans were gaining in the race of producing offensive measures faster than we could evolve methods of meeting them. Every day brought tales of sinkings, burnings and sickening murders on the high seas. But the courage and devotion of the naval men did not fail. They decided that German frightfulness should be repaid in kind.

The German practice of waging war against unarmed shipping was to first discharge a torpedo at sight, on the principle that the least said the soonest mended. If the torpedo missed its mark the submarine broke surface and fired a shot across the bows of the vessel. The merchantman then had two alternatives; to take to his heels and try to escape, or heave to and abandon the ship. In the latter case the submarine came close up and summoned the boats alongside. At the muzzle of a revolver the captain was ordered into the submarine with his papers and the crew of his boat directed to row a party of German sailors, bearing bombs, back to the ship. The bombs were then placed aboard, the ship looted and the derelict sent to the bottom.

The navy noted these Hun methods and after due consideration opined that it had solved the submarine problem. They evolved the "Hush ship."

A "Hush ship" was a ship disguised as a tramp steamer and carrying concealed armament. They plied on trade routes and when they were hailed by submarines promptly surrendered.

Enough men were left on board to operate the hidden guns. When the submarine came close the guns were put into operation and the U-boats sent to the bottom. This practice was exceedingly annoying to the German naval authorities for they had no means of knowing when and how their U-boats had been captured. They simply disappeared. It was another case of brains being used to offset superior mechanical equipment.

BLOCKING THE HARBOUR OF ZEEBRUGGE

In no case during the whole war did the valour and tradition of the British navy shine more brilliantly than in the affair of Zeebrugge.

The submarine base of Zeebrugge was protected by the Mole, a mile long and eighty yards in width, fortified by seven heavy guns facing one way and three facing another. There were also many batteries of German guns on the shore. The approach to the channel was blocked by sunken dredges and mines in such a manner that the only way to reach it was under the point-blank range of the German heavy batteries. There were also German batteries all along the shore to the south, some of them with a range of twenty-three miles. The harbour was full of destroyers. Enemy aeroplanes kept watch from the air in the day. Searchlights and flares made it seemingly impossible to approach within miles at night. In short, the idea of approaching the harbour and sinking ships across the channel would have seemed to a German the acme of madness.

The British navy planned to render that annoying base of Zeebrugge useless. For five months the preparations went on. Every sailor, and they were all volunteers, was thoroughly drilled in his part. And finally before the raid each man was taken into the confidence of the officers as to the plan, so that if all the officers were shot down the men could carry on.

At last the time came for the great adventure. The night of April 22, 1918, being favourable for an attack, the ships took up their positions some three miles off Zeebrugge. Three of the cruisers, *Intrepid*, *Iphigenia* and *Thetis*, each duly packed with concrete and with mines attached to their bottoms for the purpose of sinking them in the neck of the canal, were aimed at Zeebrugge; two others, similarly prepared, were directed at Ostend. The function of the *Vindictive*, with the ferry-boats *Iris* and *Daffodil*, was to attack the great half-moon Mole which guards the harbour of Zeebrugge, land bluejackets and marines upon it, destroy what guns, stores and Germans she could find, and generally create a diversion while the block-ships ran in and sank themselves in their appointed places.

Enveloped by a dense smoke screen, the *Vindictive* headed in towards the Mole, with bluejackets and marines standing ready for the landing. It was not until the ship was close to the Mole that the wind blew the smoke away, laying her bare to the eyes that looked seaward. A moment afterwards it seemed to those in the ships as if the dim coast and the hidden harbour exploded into light. Guns and machine guns along the Mole and batteries ashore awoke to life, and it was in a gale of shelling that *Vindictive* laid her nose against the thirty-foot high concrete side of the Mole, let go an anchor, and signed to *Daffodil* to shove her stern in. *Iris* went ahead and endeavoured to get alongside likewise. The fire, from the account of everybody concerned, was intense.

Commander A. F. B. Carpenter conned *Vindictive* from her open bridge till her stern was laid in, when he took up his position in the flame-thrower hut on the port side, which was so riddled and shattered that it is marvellous, reads the report, that any occupant of it should have survived.

The landing on the Mole was in itself a perilous business, involving a passage across the crashing, splintering gangways, a drop over the parapet into the field of fire of the German machine guns, and a further drop of some sixteen feet to the surface of the Mole itself. Many were killed and wounded as they crowded up, but nothing hindered the speedy and orderly landing from all of the eighteen gangways.

The topography of the great Mole, with its railway line and its many buildings, hangars, and store-sheds, was already well known, and the demolition parties moved to their appointed work in perfect order. One after another the buildings burst into flame or split and crumpled as the dynamite went off.

When the work of destruction was finally completed, the *Vindictive* was towed loose from the Mole by the *Daffodil* and made for home, her stokers working her up to a final display of seventeen knots.

And, as a result of the raid, the few old ships with their holds full of concrete are to-day lying across the canal in a V position, the work they set out to do having been accomplished and the canal having been effectively blocked.

Captain Carpenter, V.C., of the *Vindictive*, the great hero of this exploit, said in part: "The din was terrific and I think they got the old *Vindictive* in every visible spot. Suddenly the thing happened for which we had been semi-consciously waiting. There was a tremendous roar, and up went a huge tower of flame, débris and bodies into the black sky. My fellows cheered like mad for they knew what it meant. Sandford had got home beneath the viaduct with his ancient submarine and touched her off. I never saw such a column of flame. It seemed a mile high."

A curious feature of the submarine attack was this, that as she shot towards the viaduct the searchlights picked her up and the guns began firing at her. The submarine was full of explosives and petrol, but to the amazement of the crew when the Germans saw her still coming on and dashing straight for the Mole they stopped firing and simply gaped.

They paid for their curiosity. On the viaduct were large numbers of the enemy staring at the submarine approaching.

"Presently," Captain Carpenter says, "came the explosion and bang went the whole lot to glory. And," he added quaintly, "they must have been the most surprised lot of Huns since the war started."

The affair of Zeebrugge has been acclaimed as one of the most gallant exploits in the British navy. The romance of Captain Carpenter's rise to fame from an obscure desk in the admiralty to the command of the most heroic naval undertaking of the Great War is probably without parallel in the history of any country. The plan succeeded; the submarine base was rendered useless and the old ships loaded with concrete defied all efforts to remove them. Thus did the navy demonstrate that tradition and gallantry were more than a match for German industry and German skill.

CHAPTER VII

The Canadian Auxiliary Services

The historian of former wars was little concerned with the problems of transport and supply of the warring armies. When he had presented a narrative of the purely military operations, derived from a critical examination of the records and facts at his disposal, his task was completed with a summary of the effects of the war on the belligerent countries. Except in the areas immediately affected the national life suffered little disturbance. Armies obtained their supplies from the surrounding countryside by the simple process of taking what they required or paying for it by requisition and voucher.

But in modern warfare when the whole national resources in men and material were mobilized, when the number of troops in the field had increased from tens of thousands to millions, and when the entire quantity of food, clothing, equipment and ammunition required had to be collected from all over the world and transported to the scene of operations, all the services connected with supplies and transportation became vastly expanded. The scope of the historian and the interest of the reader have thereby become greatly increased.

A WAR WITHOUT SPECTATORS

A century ago when Great Britain went to war, the army formed but a small percentage of the male population and the auxiliary forces were correspondingly insignificant. The average citizen in England, whose wars were always waged abroad, was able to sit back and watch the contest of the armies from afar. Sometimes, as at Waterloo, large numbers of spectators went over from England to see the battle.

In the recent war there were no spectators. In a war which jeopardized the future of the empire and the world every man played his part, however humble, in the terrible contest. The whole national resources, human and material, were mobilized;

and as the armies expanded enormously those auxiliary forces, which provided supplies and munitions, transported them to those armies, looked after their health and physical welfare and conducted the necessary huge financial operations, also expanded and became scarcely less important than the fighting sections.

Behind the fighting fringe of the Canadian Corps on the western front there were non-combatant units of the most diverse nature, many of them unknown in previous wars—labour battalions, salvage companies, railway troops, postal, record and pay departments, medical, dental and veterinary services.

Many of these units, particularly engineers, pioneers, stretcher bearers, medical and army service corps, frequently came under shell fire. For the men of most of the auxiliary services, whether swinging a pick, an axe, or a pen, there was no relief from the deadly monotony of routine. The inspiration of martial music, the high tension and nerve strain of the bombardment, the excitement of the trench raid or the intoxication of the assault were unknown to them. With the exception of the engineers, pioneers and medicals, they had little chance of winning honours or decorations.

A PERFECTLY CO-ORDINATED WORK

Yet on the perfectly co-ordinated work of these various units depended the efficiency of the fighting branches. The failure of the food supply for two or three days; the inability to deliver munitions; the failure to evacuate the sick and wounded; the impossibility of building bridges, mending wire or keeping the telephone system of the army in order, would utterly destroy the fighting ability of the fighting men.

Like a huge vine with its branches and tendrils spreading fanwise from the sturdy stump, the roads and railways of the Canadian army area radiated from the bases on the coast. And along those roads like ants along the vine branches, passed an unending stream of motor lorries, horse transport, guns, ammunition and supply columns, staff cars, ambulances, troops and despatch riders.

Over these roads and railways pass the vast quantities of supplies, ammunition, food, equipment, clothing and the thousand and one requirements of a modern army in the field.

Behind the firing line those auxiliary services, each a part of a vast machine, laboured night and day, building roads and railways, transporting ammunition and supplies through miry, shell-torn country, ministering to the sick and wounded, and otherwise busied with the enormous task of sustaining thousands of our Canadian boys in a barren country.

As soon as an operation order was issued by divisional headquarters the officer commanding the engineers made the necessary arrangements for carrying out the rôle assigned to his corps. The pioneers and signallers made similar preparations. The Assistant Director of Medical Services selected the positions for his field ambulances and dressing stations. Even the chaplains established soup kitchens and coffee stalls as close to the front line as possible where wounded and exhausted men could obtain a reviving drink and a cigarette.

THE CANADIAN ENGINEERS

Like all the services connected with the supply and transportation of troops and material the work of military engineers had expanded enormously. In this corps were included engineer companies, army troop companies, tunnelling companies, assisted by pioneer and labour battalions. Railway troops may also be grouped with the engineers.

These units were responsible for the construction and upkeep of the maze of roads, railroads and light railways, over which must pass the necessaries of life and instruments of destruction of the Canadian army.

In one case a short length of railway was broken by German artillery fire a score of times in twenty-four hours, yet the gaps, varying in length from fifteen to thirty feet had to be repaired under shell fire. The engineers ranked as a combatant unit as did the pioneers who carried the same equipment as infantrymen. The latter supplied working parties in and behind the lines for the building of trenches and dugouts, tunnelling, repairing roads and other work under the supervision of the engineers. The engineers and pioneers are units which render the maximum of service with the minimum of display; only those who have seen their work realize to the slightest degree the vital importance of these branches and the miracles they have been able to accomplish.

THE FORESTRY CORPS

Enormous quantities of timber were in constant demand to meet the evergrowing requirements of the armies in the field. The glorious old forests of England and the magnificent parks, because of the stern necessities of war, were attacked by companies of Canadian lumbermen in an endeavour to meet the situation. It was a sad sight to see, as I did, miles of forest in Devon levelled to the ground, but no worse than to see the grand old forest of Nieppe near Merville in France steadily shrinking under the attacks of British and Canadian woodmen, until after two years it was just a shell, from which the meat had been removed. Fortunately, for each tree felled in England a sapling has been planted, so that a practical system of reforestation came into being.

THE ARMY SERVICE CORPS

The transportation of the vast quantities of supplies, ammunition, food, equipment, clothing and the thousand and one other requirements of a modern army in the field devolved chiefly upon the Army Service Corps. The system included railhead supply detachments, divisional trains, corps and divisional supply columns, ammunition sub-parks, three field butcheries, four field bakeries, supply depots, as well as headquarters for horse and mechanical transport, two reserve parks and a re-enforcing pool for personnel. The majority of the Army Service Corps personnel were too old for the trenches physically unfit or men incapacitated by wounds. Their life was largely one of drudgery and monotony.

It was of course impracticable to transport everything all the way up from the base as required, so that stocks of supplies were assembled in dumps, the advanced central dump being the corps dump. Further forward were the divisional dumps and further forward still, as close as was consistent with safety, were the brigade dumps. Nothing could give one a better idea of the reasons why war is so expensive than to visit the huge dumps covering acre after acre at the various French ports. They were astounding both in the area involved and the enormous quantities of material and equipment gathered together. Nothing was allowed to go to waste in the army, and salvage companies were formed for the sole purpose of collecting and storing débris of all description which could possibly be converted into something else useful. Even bully beef tins are

Photo by Central News Photo Service.

A FOREST OF BAYONETS

The might of the British Empire is typified in this impressive scene on the battlefields of France at a review of Canadian and British troops, held to commemorate the beginning of the fourth year of the War.

collected. The odds and ends were gathered at the salvage dumps usually placed near ordnance dumps, under the control of the Assistant Director of Ordnance Services. Wherever possible light railways were used for the transport of salvage instead of motor transport.

THE ORDNANCE SERVICE

The Ordnance Service had under its supervision the supplies of the Canadian Corps heavy artillery, the Canadian Corps ammunition parks, the inspection of divisional ammunition dumps, brigade and regimental bomb stores and battery ammunition dugouts, railhead ordnance offices, laboratories, salvage dumps, laundry and baths—a formidable catalogue of duties.

A unique feature of the repair work undertaken by this service was that of the corps ordnance mobile workshop. This unit travelled from point to point carrying out inspections and repairs to trench mortars, howitzers, guns and water carts.

Experiments and inventions were reported upon, while every idea designed to promote efficiency was carefully tried out by officers of the Ordnance Service.

SIGNAL CORPS

The smooth direction of the whole complex system of huge organization behind the line—no less than the handling of large masses of troops in the field—depends absolutely upon the nervous system of the army, the Signal Corps. A collapse of the signal service would result in the complete paralysis of the army.

Instant and unbroken communication must be kept up from each section of trench through battalion, brigade, division and corps headquarters right up to the general headquarters. Without such communication it would be utterly futile to attempt to control the huge fighting machine which modern warfare has brought into being. The Signal Corps must therefore consist of highly trained specialists who are thoroughly proficient in the use of flags, double and single, the lamp for night signalling, the heliograph and discs, while others are expert telegraph operators.

It is only after months of the hardest and most exacting work that the best candidates graduate from the signalling schools. Those unable to reach the required standard are returned to their units.

ERSITY OF ST. MIC
LIBRAR

The duties of signallers and linesmen in the front line demanded an almost incredible degree of courage. The network of telephone lines running back from observation posts and front line trenches to batteries and battalion headquarters had to be kept in repair under the worst bombardments. The forward observation officer and his signaller crouched perhaps in some foul shell hole, with all their faculties concentrated on registering the effect of their battery's fire and correcting it over the telephone, while enemy shrapnel and high explosive burst about them unnoticed. If the wire was cut and the forward observation officer thereby separated from his battery the latter instantly became blind. And when, as frequently happened, the wire was cut, the linesman crawled from the trench and all alone disappeared to find and mend the break, armed only with pliers and copper wire. Such work required courage of the very highest order.

VETERINARY CORPS

Beyond the railheads on disrupted roads and trails the horse played a part of inestimable value. To the Canadian Army Veterinary Corps was delegated the responsibility of keeping up the supply of horses and mules, caring for their physical welfare, and preventing the spread of disease. Besides the veterinary officers in charge of this work in divisions and brigades there was a mobile veterinary section to look after horse casualties, bring up remounts, supervise the quality of fodder supplied, and in general see that the horses of the division were thoroughly looked after.

CHAPLAIN SERVICE

The noble work of the army chaplain cannot be described or measured in words. The army chaplain of the type who is fearless—a man's man—did an incalculable amount of good at the front. No other kind was of much use. They had to meet on a common ground of understanding the hopes and fears of all sorts of men who were face to face with the elemental facts of life and death. Practically all denominations were represented in the chaplain service.

To the spiritual side of their work, to the noble duty of bringing consolation to the troubled in spirit, comfort to the wounded, faith and hope to the living and peace to the dying the Canadian chaplains devoted themselves with zeal. But they undertook many other duties such as looking after recreation huts, cinema shows and libraries. Special services and Bible classes were also held in England and personal visits made to all men in hospital. University extension work was also carried on by the chaplains, hundreds of students enrolling for these classes.

In France the chaplain established soup kitchens and coffee stalls close to the front lines when an offensive was about to take place, so that wounded soldiers returning to the rear could get some refreshment and a cigarette. Several canteens were also operated by the chaplains in France. But above all the chaplain did not forget the fact that his chief duty was to bring spiritual comfort and solace to the soldiers who had been committed to his charge. Many thousands of men before battle have been comforted in soul and strengthened in heart by the last sacred services held by chaplains and prepared for whatever might be before them.

POSTAL CORPS

When the First Canadian division went overseas the officer commanding the Canadian Postal Corps went with it taking with him, with one exception, the whole personnel. The officer left behind had to create a postal service for all Canadian base details, and in 1915 the corps was reorganized as an independent unit. Wherever new training areas were opened new base or field post offices were formed. In 1916 arrangements were made to establish postal staffs at every regimental command, and discharge depot. Every man had to be followed as he moved from place to place and his mail readdressed so as to reach him. About thirty per cent of all mail had to be readdressed. Ninety per cent of all mail matter addressed to Canadian troops in England and France passed through the Canadian London base. In October, 1917, for example, 650,000 pieces of mail had to be redirected while over 8,000,000 pieces were handled altogether in England.

In France the task of the Assistant Director of Postal Service was much more difficult from the fact that mail had to be delivered to troops constantly on the move. Yet every man, no matter how often transferred or moved, received his mail matter promptly. The system in use was briefly the following:

At the Canadian railheads in France mail was received in bags properly sorted. They were then conveyed by lorry to the mail dump, from which they were carried through the divisional field post offices to brigades and other units. Regimental mail orderlies called daily at their respective brigade post offices to receive the mail for their respective units. The letters and parcels were delivered daily to the men, while the mail for the sick and wounded followed them quickly to the hospital to which they had been sent.

PAY AND RECORD OFFICE

When Canada took the field with a single division the Pay and Record Office existed as a single small department. After the arrival of the contingent in England the staff found itself confronted with innumerable extraneous problems. In 1915 the office was divided into two, the Pay Office and the Record Office.

It required over $100,000,000 a year to finance the Canadian army overseas. The money required was deposited in the Bank of Montreal and the money drawn out and passed down through the chief paymaster and the advances branch, through all the departments to the various field formations.

The branch which concerned itself with the man's pay handled the accounts of over 300,000 men. The task of keeping them up to date involved about 4,000,000 entries a month. The pay office would send money anywhere for a soldier, even to a prisoner of war. A staff of 2,000 men was required to cope with work of the pay office in England.

The Canadian overseas base pay unit in France was established in February, 1915, and carried out the work connected with the payment of troops in the field. Field cashiers or divisional paymasters, usually located at divisional headquarters, supervised the work of unit paymasters.

The regimental paymasters, in addition to paying non-commissioned officers and men, cashed cheques for officers, issued leave cheques to men going on leave, despatched the effects of men killed to the base and, in general, performed the duties of assistant adjutant and record officer.

RECORDS OFFICE

In order that the part played by Canadians in the World War would not become a confused and indistinct memory the Canadian

Records Office had, in addition to keeping records of all documents relating to personnel, etc., the function of sifting over, collating and preparing historical material while it was in the course of making.

Every document turned in, from the war diary of the headquarters staff to the personal narrative of a private, was read and filed and condensed accounts of actions prepared from them. Escaped prisoners of war were also interviewed and their impressions filed away.

The aim was to supply a collection of historical material to meet the demands of the future historian, while official photographers and cinematographers of the War Records Office went forward and made records which will visualize war and its terrors to future generations.

From the above outlines, sketchy though they be, of the work of the Army Auxiliary Services, excepting the work of the medical and dental corps and some of the work of the ordnance service which appears in another chapter, it will be seen that the work of the actual fighting man in the front line was only made possible through the efforts of probably two other men behind the lines. These saw to it that the narrow fighting fringe of the army was kept in the very best possible condition; failure on the part of any one service spelled disaster to the whole. If the army service failed to supply food; the ordnance service to supply ammunition; the engineers to supply bridges, wire and water; the army medical corps to evacuate the wounded and prevent disease, or if any other branch failed one can readily see that the whole system would fall to the ground. In thinking of the war, credit must be given to the men who were not actual combatants, but who often worked under shell fire and cheerfully carried on the laborious monotonous humdrum work which made the army efficient. On the work of these auxiliary services the success or failure of an offensive frequently rested.

CHAPTER VIII

The Great Allied Drive

In mid July, 1918, Ludendorff had shot his bolt on the western front. He had already stretched his line from 195 to 250 miles and could expand it no further. Everywhere the Allies had brought the German rushes, which had developed the Marne, Picardy and Lys salients, to a standstill.

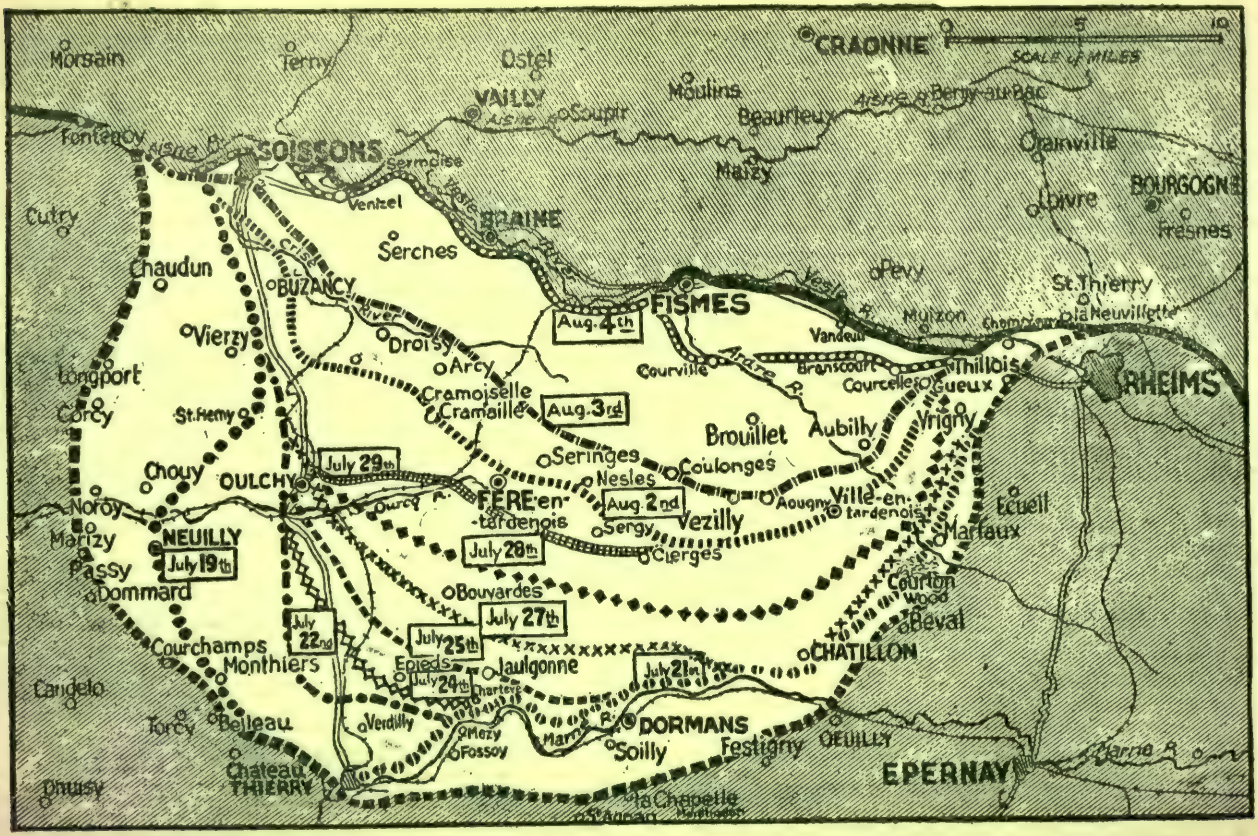
Immediately Foch assumed the initiative and crushed in the three salients in succession with the aid of his army of manœuvre. He then proceeded to develop two salients at each end of the Hindenburg line—at Laon on the south and at Cambrai on the north. The third phase began to develop in mid October with attacks at both ends of a line representing 200 miles of Belgian frontier. The enemy had lost 300,000 men and 5,000 guns since the Allies had assumed the offensive.

On September 12th and the week following the St. Mihiel salient was eliminated by American troops, while on September 18th the outer works of the Hindenburg line were penetrated by the British.

The latter enabled further advances against Cambrai, and the penetration of the Hindenburg line towards St. Quentin by the British and the movement again Laon by the French. These three movements having been exploited the two great flank attacks made possible the advance of the Franco-American armies in the Champagne and that of September 28th by the Belgians, French and British in western Belgium and ultimately resulted in the crushing in of the enemy centre and the retreat of the whole German army.

THE RECOVERY OF SOISSONS

On July 18th Marshal Foch, having his armies ready and his plans fully matured, delivered the first great counter-stroke on the front between Château-Thierry and Soissons which changed the whole fortune of the war. The French had, after the British


Morsain
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Berry-au-Bac
Fontenoy
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SOISSONS
Sermoise
Maizy
Cormicy
Cauroy
Loivre
BOURGOGNE
Fresnes
Cutry
Venizel
BRAINE
Vesle River
Serches
Chaudun
BUZANCY
Crise
FISMES
Pevy
St. Thierry
Vesle R.
Vierzy
River
Droisy
Aug. 4th
Muizon
Champigny
la Neuvillette
Vandeuil
Arcy
Courville
Ardre R.
Branscourt
Thillois
RHEIMS
Longport
Cramoiselle
Cramaille
Aug. 3rd
Courcelles
Gueux
Corcy
St. Remy
Brouillet
Aubilly
Vrigny
July 29th
Seringes
Coulonges
Chouy
OULCHY
Nesles
Ourcq R.
FERE-en-Tardenois
Aug. 2nd
Aougny
Ville-en-Tardenois
Ecueil
Noroy
Vezilly
Marizy
NEUILLY
Sergy
Marfaux
July 19th
July 28th
Cierges
Passy
Dommard
Bouvardes
Courton Wood
July 27th
Beval
July 22nd
Courchamps
July 25th
CHATILLON
Monthiers
Epieds
Jaulgonne
July 21st
July 24th
Chartève
Candelo
Torcy
Belleau
Verdilly
Mézy
Marne R.
DORMANS
Festigny
OEUILLY
Fossoy
Soilly
Marne R.
Chateau THIERRY
EPERNAY
Dhuisy
la Chapelle
St. Agnan
Monthodon

How the Soissons–Rheims Salient was Destroyed
Map showing the day-by-day retreat of the Germans from the Marne to the Vesle.

offensive at Cambrai, realized that the tank was the ideal method of breaking down enemy defences and began building a small type of tank in large numbers. These Reynaud tanks resembled the British whippet tanks which had already given excellent satisfaction. When the Germans began their great offensive in March the French had few tanks ready and did not use them; when the middle of July had come they had large numbers of these tanks.

The exposed western side of the deep salient towards Paris received the first weight of the allied blow, when, on July 18th, French and American troops attacked the twenty-seven-mile front between Soissons and Château-Thierry. No preliminary bombardment was used but fleets of tanks advancing broke through the enemy defences with the same success that Sir Julian Byng had achieved at Cambrai in the previous autumn.

In conjunction with the French the Twenty-second British corps on July 20th attacked on the eastern side of the salient towards Rheims, on a front of 8,000 yards. The attack in the face of determined resistance was carried on continuously for ten days and with the aid of French artillery and tanks penetrated to a depth of four miles, during which 1,200 prisoners were taken.

Meanwhile, on the western side of the salient the Fifteenth and Thirty-fourth British divisions attacked and for a week had also very heavy fighting on different parts of this front; these divisions, which greatly distinguished themselves, were withdrawn in the early days of August.

In the first day the French advanced from three to eight miles and the Americans five miles. Five thousand prisoners and thirty guns were captured the first day. By nightfall on July 19th the Allies had 17,000 prisoners and 360 guns. Two days later the Allies were crossing the Marne and the enemy began blowing up ammunition dumps.

There were thirty-five German divisions within the salient in danger of envelopment unless they could extricate themselves. On July 26th they were forced to begin a general retreat from the salient and, fighting obstinately, they were driven beyond the points from which their offensive began. By August 2d the Allies re-entered Soissons and the whole length of the enemy line from Hartennes to Soissons had been rolled up.

Simultaneously smaller successful operations were carried out

CANADIAN GENERALS WHO HELD IMPORTANT COMMANDS

Lt.-Gen. Sir R. E. W. Turner

Maj.-Gen. F. O. W. Loomis | Maj.-Gen. Sir David Watson

Maj.-Gen. L. J. Lipsett

Maj.-Gen. A. C. McDonnell | Maj.-Gen. Sir H. E. Burstall

Maj.-Gen. M. S. Mercer

by the Allies in front of Amiens and in the Lys Valley against the armies of Prince Rupprecht. As a result the Germans kept falling back behind fresh river lines such as the Aisne, the Vesle, the Avre and the Ancre.

On August 4th, on the fourth anniversary of the declaration of war, it was announced that 300,000 Americans had been safely transported to France during the previous month. On that day Mr. Lloyd George, the British Premier, in a message to the British nation, said: "Hold fast. . . . Our prospects of victory have never been so bright as they are today."

PLAN OF FOCH'S OFFENSIVE

At a conference held on July 23d, when the success of the attack on July 18th was assured, methods for extending the allied advantage were discussed in detail. Marshal Foch asked that the British, French and American armies should each prepare plans for local offensives to be undertaken as soon as possible. These were to be of the type of limited objectives. The British were called upon to free the Amiens-Paris railway by an attack on the Albert-Montdidier front. The French and Americans were to free other strategic railways by operations farther to the south and east.

There were strong arguments for the disengagement of the Hazebrouk centre through the recapture of Kemmel Hill combined with an attack towards La Bassée. Such an operation would improve our position at Ypres and Calais, would reduce the Lys salient and remove the threat from the Bruay coal mines.

It was arranged subsequently that converging attacks would be made toward Mezières by the French and American armies while the British armies would attack along the St. Quentin-Cambrai line, striking at the vital lateral communications running through Maubeuge to Mezières. This line alone supplied the German front in the Champagne. The advance of the British armies towards Maubeuge would also threaten the communications of the German armies in Flanders.

It was of vital importance to the enemy that he maintain intact the front opposite St. Quentin and Cambrai and for this purpose he depended on the great fortified zone known as the Hindenburg line.

GENERAL PLAN OF BRITISH OPERATIONS

The Amiens attack was the prelude to a great series of battles in which, through three months of continuous fighting, the British armies advanced without a check from one victory to another.

The mighty conflict may be divided into two well-defined phases.

In the first phase of the struggle the enemy endeavoured to defend himself in the deep belt of prepared positions extending from Albert and Villers Bretonneux to the Hindenburg line between St. Quentin and the Scarpe. From these positions, the scene of the stubbornly fought battles of the two preceding years, the German armies were forced back step by step by a succession of methodical attacks which culminated in the breaking through of the Hindenburg line defences.

In the second phase of the struggle our troops were operating in practically open country against the enemy who endeavoured to make a stand on such natural or semi-prepared positions as were left to him, for periods long enough to enable him to organize his retreat and avoid overwhelming disaster.

Throughout the second period the violence of the British assaults and the rapidity of their advance towards the enemy's vital centres of communication about Maubeuge threatened to cut the main avenue of escape for the German forces opposite the French and German armies. The enemy armies in Flanders also were equally endangered by our progress behind their left flanks, while the allied forces under the King of the Belgians forced their retreat. To the north and south of the area in which the victorious British armies were driving forward through his weakening defences the enemy was compelled to execute hasty withdrawals from wide tracts of territory.

The second phase had already reached its legitimate conclusion when the signing of the armistice put an end to hostilities. Finally, defeated in the great battles of the 1st and 4th of November, and utterly without reserve, the enemy at that date was falling back without coherent plan in widespread disorder and confusion.

THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

The objects of the attack in front of Amiens were to disengage Amiens itself, free the Paris-Amiens railway, and cut the communications of the German forces in the Lassigny and Montdidier regions by capturing the important railway junction of Chaulnes.

The attack was to be made by the Fourth Army under General Sir Henry Rawlinson, who was also given the Canadian Corps, two British divisions and the First French Army under General Debeney. In order to deceive the enemy, Canadian battalions were sent north to the Kemmel region and were speedily identified by the enemy. The appearance of Canadian troops in the line meant an offensive, and the enemy became certain that an attack was impending in the Lys region. Furthermore, the impression was given of a great concentration of tanks near St. Pol and training operations were so carried out behind the lines that the enemy aeroplane reconnaissance confirmed the impression that a great attack was to be launched in the north.

The Canadian Corps was then moved into the line by night, the tanks and cavalry secretly concentrated at the last moment, and on August 8th the attack was launched.

The front of General Rawlinson's Fourth Army extended from the Amiens-Roye road to Morlancourt, a distance of eleven miles. On the right was the Canadian Corps under Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, with the First, Second and Third Canadian divisions in line and the Fourth Canadian division in close support. In the centre was the Australian corps under Lieutenant-General Sir John Monash, with the Second and Third Australian divisions in line and the Fourth and Fifth in support. On the left, north of the Somme River, was the Third British corps with the Fifty-eighth and Eighteenth British divisions in line and the Twelfth division in support. Thus eight out of the eleven infantry divisions were Colonial troops.

The British cavalry corps, two motor machine-gun brigades and a Canadian cyclist battalion were concentrated behind the British front to be attacked. The French First Army, on the right of the British, was to attack on a five-mile front and gradually extend this southward to Braches.

The British bombardment, which opened at 4.20 A. M., on August 8th, smothered the enemy batteries; the assault by tanks and infantry took the enemy completely by surprise and our first objectives were rapidly gained. Cavalry and light tanks then passed ahead to exploit the situation and by night we had completed an advance of between six and seven miles south of the Somme.

North of the Somme the British divisions were held, but the Colonials on the south, with the aid of cavalry and tanks, had captured 13,000 prisoners, nearly 400 guns and vast quantities of stores and ammunition. At nightfall the enemy was blowing up dumps in all directions while his transport and artillery streamed eastward towards the Somme offering excellent targets to our airmen.

The British commander-in-chief, in his despatch, said:

> The brilliant and predominating part taken by the Canadian and Australian corps in this battle is worthy of the highest commendation. The skill and determination of these troops proved irresistible and at all points met with rapid and complete success.

To the right the attack of the French army had also succeeded and 2,350 prisoners and many guns were captured on the first day.

The sweeping success achieved on the first day was exploited and the advance continued rapidly, much ground and many prisoners and villages being taken. By the evening of August 12th we had reached the old German Somme defences of 1916 along the old general Roye-Chaulnes defence. This area, overgrown with tall weeds, traversed by old barbed wire and pitted with shell holes, offered magnificent opportunities for machine-gun defence, and the enemy resistance began to stiffen. Accordingly the attack was broken off at this point in order to begin an attack in the direction of Bapaume.

The results of the battle of Amiens were very great. In five days Amiens and its railways had been rendered safe; twenty German divisions had been badly defeated, 22,000 prisoners and over 400 guns had been captured and an advance of twelve miles made in a vital sector.

The effect on the morale of both armies was enormous. The enemy, previously buoyed up by hopes of an early peace and convinced that the Allies were exhausted, was suddenly beaten and thrown back with heavy losses of men, guns and important ground. The effect upon him was most depressing and the reaction of a deep and lasting character.

On the British army the effect was just the reverse. The

British troops felt that their hour had come, and that, supported by artillery and numerous tanks, they could now press forward to reap the reward of their patient and indomitable defence of March and April. And later, as they moved confidently forward from one success to another, their previous suffering, danger and losses were alike forgotten in their desire to beat the enemy.

BATTLE OF BAPAUME

The enemy was next attacked by the British in the region between the Somme River and the Scarpe where his left flank was exposed because of the Fourth Army advance. The region selected between Albert and Arras permitted of the use of tanks, while the attack, if successful, would be a step forward towards the strategic objective St. Quentin-Cambrai. The opening attack was made by Byng's Third Army, on August 21st, and the divisions of the Fourth Army north of the Somme. Supported by tanks the enemy's foremost defences were carried rapidly and without difficulty, 2,000 prisoners being taken the first day. Next day the Fourth Army attacked and 2,400 more prisoners were taken. The main assault was delivered on August 23d on a thirty-three-mile front supported by 100 tanks and again proved successful. Five thousand prisoners and some guns were taken, and after severe fighting the German positions on the Thiepval Ridge and around Ovillers were taken. Pozières, Courcelette, Martinpuich, Miraumont, Grevillers, St. Leger and many other towns were captured on August 24th.

During the next five days of heavy fighting the advance was continued and on August 29th Bapaume was evacuated by the enemy. By the night of August 29th allied infantry had reached the left bank of the Somme on the whole front from Nesle to Peronne.

On August 31st the Second Australians, after hard fighting, captured Mt. St. Quentin and Peronne, bringing to a close the second stage of this offensive, during which thirty-five German divisions had been driven from one side of the old Somme battlefield to the other. Very heavy casualties had been inflicted upon the enemy while 34,000 prisoners and 250 guns had been taken from him.

The enemy morale was now clearly deteriorating, for garrisons left as rear guards surrendered as soon as they found themselves threatened with isolation. The enemy had also been forced to throw in his reserves piecemeal and was evidently becoming disorganized.

BREAKING THE DROCOURT-QUÉANT LINE

In order to extend the flank of the salient opposite Arras the First British Army, on August 26th, drove eastward from Arras. The attack by the Second and Third Canadian divisions and the Fifty-first Highland division was completely successful and the operation was immediately followed up with great energy. By the end of the month the advance had brought us within assaulting distance of the powerful trench system running from the Hindenburg line at Quéant to the Lens defences about Drocourt. The breaking of this would turn the whole of the enemy's organized positions on a wide front southward.

The powerful Drocourt-Quéant line was broken, the maze of trenches at the juncture of that line and the Hindenburg system was stormed and the enemy was thrown into precipitate retreat on the whole front to the south of it. The Canadian First and Fourth divisions and the Fourth British Division attacked on a four-and-a-half-mile front south of Trinquis Brook, supported by forty tanks, mobile machine-gun units and armoured cars. By noon the whole of the elaborate system of wire, trenches and strong points constituting the Drocourt-Quéant line was in our hands.

At the same time the Seventeenth corps, employing the Fifty-second, Fifty-seventh and Sixty-third divisions, attacked the triangle of fortifications marking the junction of the Hindenburg and Drocourt-Quéant lines and also met with complete success.

Our troops had pushed forward over three miles along the Arras-Cambrai road and had taken 8,000 prisoners and many guns. The fighting was of the fiercest description but our troops were not to be denied and bore down all opposition.

As a result of the successes at Amiens, Bapaume and the Scarpe, which included the taking of Monchy-le-Preux and the Drocourt-Quéant line, the enemy fell back rapidly on the whole front of the Third Army and the right of the First Army. This withdrawal continued until, by September 8th, he was holding the general line, Vermand-Epéhy-Havrincourt, and thence along the Canal du Nord. This withdrawal extended to the south on the front of the French forces to the right of the British.

In the battle our troops followed the enemy closely, doing great execution among his retiring columns with forward guns and aeroplanes, and taking many prisoners. Ten British divisions, by overthrowing thirteen German divisions, gave the signal of the general retreat which resulted in the capture of 16,000 prisoners and about 200 guns.

THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT

The St. Mihiel salient had existed since the line settled down after the first German failure to advance on Paris. It was thrust forward in front of the Metz gap between the fortresses of Verdun and Toul and reached the little town of St. Mihiel commanding the railway which linked the two cities. It formed a triangle with sides approximately twenty miles in length. There were few roads in the salient but the enemy had constructed a light railway from Thiaucourt to St. Mihiel

To the new American First Army of seven divisions in the front line and seven in reserve, containing 168,000 bayonets in all, together with divisions of French troops, was assigned the task of straightening out this line. The force under the American General Pershing was assisted by French and English air squadrons, French artillery and tanks.

On September 12th the American Army, after a four hours' bombardment, attacked from both sides of the triangle exposed, and by afternoon had advanced over the low hills, capturing Thiaucourt, Pannes, Nonsard and Montsec. The cavalry pushed on towards Vigneulles in the centre of the salient. From the western side the Americans quickly reached Combres and the two converging forces were within ten miles of each other. French troops had meanwhile thrust forward at the point of the wedge and the three enemy divisions in the triangle were in danger of envelopment; 8,000 prisoners were taken.

On the second day the converging American armies met, trapping large numbers of Germans in the pocket formed. In all 443 guns and 16,000 prisoners were captured. The defeated Germans now began to retreat between the River Meuse and the Moselle, a retreat which extended over a front of thirty-three miles. Ablancourt, Fresnes, Boncourt, Haumont and Remembercourt were all taken and only when the heavy guns of Metz twelve miles away came into action did the enemy resistance begin to stiffen. A break through by the Allies at this end of the line might have endangered the entire enemy armies in France, or have cut off those operating in the east from those in Flanders. The enemy accordingly greatly strengthened his forces at that point at the expense of the rest of the front, and the allied advance was checked.

BATTLE OF HAVRINCOURT AND EPÉHY (SEPTEMBER 12–18)

North of Havrincourt the enemy had taken shelter behind the strongly defended Canal du Nord; south of Havrincourt the enemy's main line of resistance was the well-known Hindenburg line which ran to the Scheldt Canal at Bantouzelle whence it followed the line of the canal to St. Quentin.

Strong positions in front of Havrincourt and Epéhy had to be taken before a final attack on the Hindenburg line could be made. On September 12th the Third British Army attacked the Havrincourt sector and captured it. The Third and Fourth armies again attacked on a seventeen-mile front with the co-operation of the First French Army south of Holnon. Our troops penetrated the deeply fortified belt for a distance of three miles, capturing practically the whole of our objectives. On the extreme right and in the left centre about Epéhy the very determined enemy resistance was overcome, leaving the Hindenburg defences open to assault. Fifteen British divisions had defeated twenty German divisions, capturing nearly 12,000 prisoners and 100 guns, and completing the fourth stage of our offensive.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ALLIED PLAN

It was now decided between the allied commanders, after the success of the First American Army at St. Mihiel, to launch four convergent and simultaneous offensives as follows:

1. By the Americans west of the Meuse in the direction of Mezières.
2. By the French west of Argonne in close co-operation with the American attacks and with the same general objective.
3. By the British on the St. Quentin-Cambrai front in the general direction of Maubeuge.
4. By Belgian and allied forces in Flanders in the direction of Ghent.

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MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH

Generalissimo of the Allied Forces in the Great War from March, 1918.

By those means the important German forces in front of the French and Americans would be pressed back upon the difficult country of the Ardennes, while the British were to break through upon the principal German line of communication. At the same time it was intended to turn the flank of the Germans, weakened by attacks elsewhere.

THE FAMOUS HINDENBURG LINE

The Scheldt Canal, between St. Quentin and Bantouzelle, was an integral part of a deep defensive system but was chiefly valuable in affording cover to resting troops and the main defensive trench lines during a bombardment. The canal in that sector ran through cuttings sometimes sixty-one feet deep and in one place passed through a tunnel 6,000 yards long. Along the top edge of the cuts the enemy had numberless concrete or armoured machine-gun emplacements. The sides of the cuts were burrowed with numerous tunnels and dug-outs. The tunnel itself was used to provide living quarters for large numbers of troops and was connected with the trenches on the surface of the ground by shafts. South of Bellicourt the canal became shallow and south of Bellenglise it became dry. On the western side of the canal were two thoroughly organized and extremely heavily wired lines of continuous trench at distances of 2,000 and 1,000 yards respectively. This constituted the Hindenburg line proper.

There were numerous trench lines, switch trenches, and communication trenches heavily wired and so situated as to meet local weaknesses or take advantage of favorable fields of fire.

Behind the easternmost trench lines at a distance of about 4,000 yards was a second double row of trenches very thoroughly wired and holding numerous concrete shelters and machine-gun emplacements. The whole series of defences, with the numerous defended villages contained in it, formed a belt of country varying from 7,000 to 10,000 yards (four to six miles) in depth. It was organized by the employment of every available means into a most powerful system well meriting the great reputation attached to it.

ST. QUENTIN

On September 18th the Fourth British Army under Sir Henry Rawlinson and the First French Army under Debeney attacked and carried the outer defences of the Hindenburg line at two points northwest of St. Quentin. Massed attacks with heavy artillery concentration against the newly won British position failed all along the twenty-two mile front. This enabled Rawlinson's left and the Third British Army under Sir Julian Byng to carry the offensive farther. On September 27th Byng's Third Army including the Canadian Corps and Horne's First Army, with the Thirtieth American division, advanced along a fourteen-mile front towards Cambrai. This attack, which crossed the Canal du Nord and the Hindenburg line at several points, resulted in the capture of 6,000 prisoners and several villages. Next day the advance was continued and several more towns and 4,000 additional prisoners were captured. Over 200 guns were taken in the two days.

On September 29th Rawlinson's Fourth British Army after bombarding the enemy lines for two days crossed the Scheldt Canal while the American division captured Bellecourt.

On the Fourth Army front, the Forty-sixth British division (Major-General G. F. Boyd) greatly distinguished itself in the capture of Bellenglise. The village is situated in the angle of the Scheldt Canal, which, after running in a southerly direction from Bellicourt, here bends sharply to the east toward the Le Tronquoy Tunnel. Equipped with lifebelts, and carrying mats and rafts, the Forty-sixth division stormed the western arm of the canal at Bellenglise and to the north of it, some crossing the canal on footbridges which the enemy was given no time to destroy, others dropping down the sheer sides of the canal wall, and, having swum or waded to the far side, climbing up the further wall to the German trench lines on the eastern bank. Having captured these trenches, the attacking troops swung to the right and took from flank and rear the German defenses along the eastern arm of the canal and on the high ground south of the canal, capturing many prisoners and German batteries in action before the enemy had had time to realize the new direction of the attack. So thorough and complete was the organization for this attack, and so gallantly, rapidly, and well was it executed by the troops, that this one division took on this day over 4,000 prisoners and seventy guns.

The advance towards Cambrai forced the enemy to abandon the Lens coal area, after he had done the maximum amount of damage and flooded the mines. The First British Army now advancing captured towns six miles from Douai while Byng's Third British Army reached a point five miles northwest of Cambrai.

St. Quentin, in the centre of the Hindenburg line, is the key to the railway line between France, Belgium and Northern Germany. At one time it was part of the dowry of Mary Queen of Scots, when she married Francis II. It was protected by the elaborate Hindenburg line, the Somme and St. Quentin canals. One of the reasons for its great importance was the fact that it was a distributing centre for a considerable portion of the German front and was connected with the Belgian front by a three-tracked railway.

When Generals Rawlinson and Debeney penetrated the western section of the Hindenburg line they quickly took advantage of their advance and pushed forward steadily, capturing many towns, until, by October 1st, they were in the outskirts of St. Quentin itself. Next day they entered the city, to discover that the civilian population of 50,000 souls had been deported.

Advancing northeast of St. Quentin the British took Le Catelet and crossed the Scheldt Canal.

During those nine days of great and critical assaults the First, Third and Fourth British armies stormed the line of the Canal du Nord and broke through the Hindenburg line and brought to a close the first phase of the British offensive. The enemy's last and most powerful defensive system had been shattered and the whole of the famous Hindenburg line had passed into our possession.

The effect upon the subsequent course of the campaign was decisive. Nothing now lay between our armies and Maubeuge but the natural obstacles of a wooded and well-watered countryside.

Thirty British and two American divisions with one British cavalry division had overwhelmingly defeated thirty-nine German divisions in the strongest entrenched position ever constructed and taken 36,000 prisoners and 380 guns. The deterioration of German morale was thereafter most marked.

LAON

Foch made his attack towards Laon from the St. Gobain Forest on the west and the Berry-au-Bac line of the Aisne on the southeast, instead of by a frontal attack such as Pétain had attempted the year before. On September 28th General Mangin commenced his advance against the German line, and on October 2d captured several towns between the Aisne and the Vesle River. General Bertholet on his right advanced towards Berry-au-Bac ten miles north of Rheims. This was captured on October 7th. General Mangin had occupied nearly the whole of the Chemin des Dames and the Germans were being driven from the Craonne plateaux. The strongholds of La Fère and Laon were acquired with little resistance. The vertex of the German salient in France was eliminated and thereafter the advance to the Aisne was rapid.

CHAMPAGNE OFFENSIVE

The attack in the sector from Rheims to the Côtes de Meuse began on September 26th, two days previous to the Belgian-British offensive in Flanders. The French under General Gouraud advanced from the Suippe River east to the Argonne Forest; the American First Army attacked from the Argonne Forest to the Meuse River north of Verdun. In the first day the French advanced from three to four miles and the Americans from five to six. By the end of the second day 10,000 prisoners had been taken. The Americans continued their advance down the Meuse taking numerous towns, while the French, advancing rapidly on September 29th and 30th, gained the position controlling the railway junction of Charllerange.

On October 4th the Americans went through the last organized enemy defence south of the Belgian frontier. On the following day the French drove back the enemy on a twelve-mile front and the next day pursued him on a wide front north and northeast of Rheims for a distance of eight miles. On October 11th the French took over the entire line of the Suippe and the Americans began a new offensive east of the Meuse. In sixteen days the Fourth French Army had taken 21,567 prisoners and 600 guns.

The First American Army on October 15th took Hill 299 and on the following day seized the important strategic point of Grand Pré and consolidated their positions beyond the Kriemhelde line. The French, on October 18th, crossed the Aisne River near Vouziers.

FLANDERS OFFENSIVE

The British fleet on September 28th was busily engaged in bombarding the enemy coast defences from Nieuport to Zeebrugge, and on the following day King Albert's Belgian Army and the British Second Army, under Sir Herbert Plumer, broke through the German lines on a ten-mile front between Passchendaele Ridge and Dixmude, penetrating the enemy positions for five miles and capturing 4,000 prisoners. On the following day the Belgians had arrived within two miles of Roulers, capturing 1,500 more prisoners. Next day Roulers was taken by them. The British, on September 30th, overran Passchendaele Ridge and came within two miles of the railway junction of Menin, while to the southeast they reached the Lys River on a four-mile front between Warneton and Wervicq.

A new French army under General Degoutte arrived in this sector and a great enveloping movement was begun. This quickly wiped out the remains of the salient developed by the Germans on April 9th. The Belgian advance continued beyond Roulers and the British advance between Roulers and Courtrai.

On October 14th a furious attack from Comines to the sea was made towards Ghent and Courtrai by the British, French and Belgians, and signs of disintegration of the enemy armies rapidly made their appearance. On October 16th under the allied pressure the great German retreat from western Belgium began, closely followed by our armies. The Fifth British Army, now reorganized under General Birdwood, began the envelopment of Lille and occupied it on October 17th after the enemy had evacuated that city so beloved by the people of northern France.

On the day after the Germans began their retreat from Belgium the Ostend and Zeebrugge submarine bases were evacuated, as were many Belgian cities.

CHAPTER IX

From Amiens to Mons With the Canadians

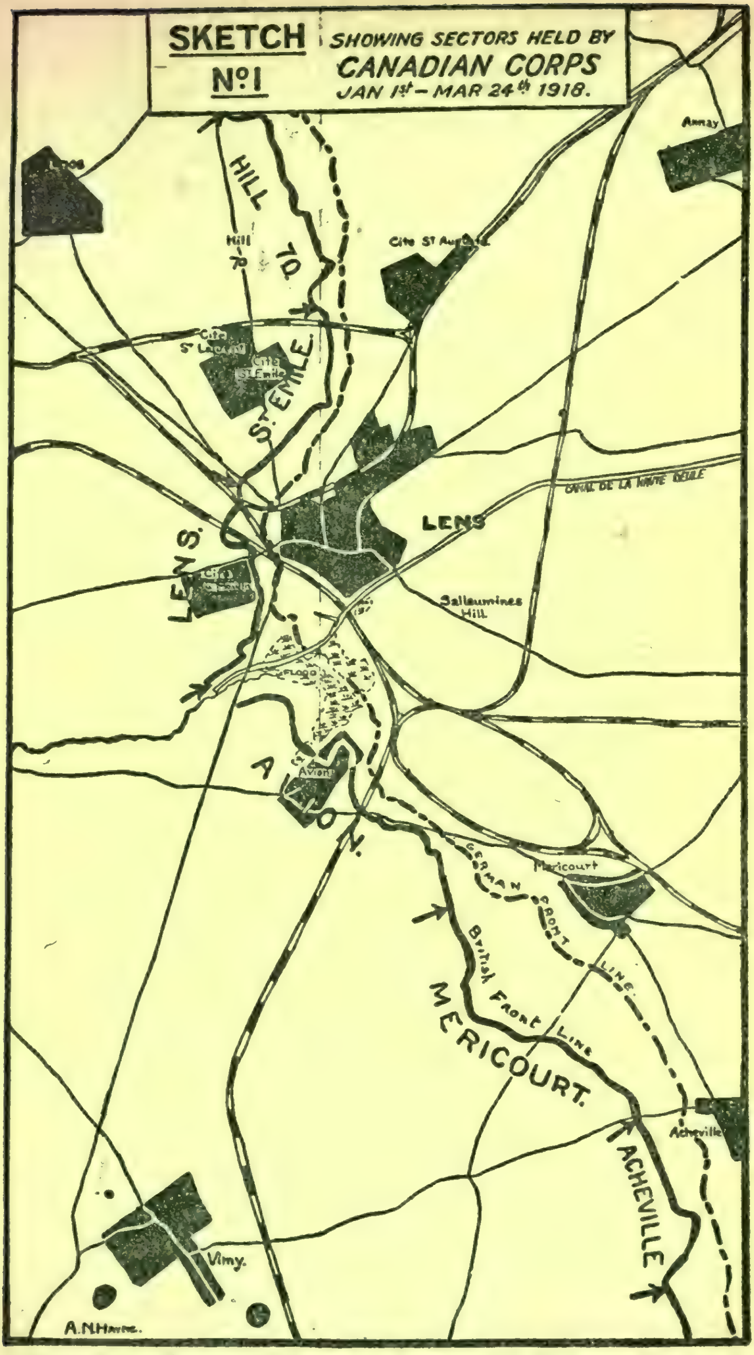
The front held by the Canadian Corps on January 1, 1918, reached from Acheville to Loos, a distance of 13,000 yards. Certain changes designed to increase the fighting efficiency of the division were carried out by the corps commander by increasing the strength of each battalion by 100 and reorganizing the engineers and machine-gun sections.

The ground held by the Canadian Corps was that captured by the Canadians during the battle of Vimy Ridge and subsequent operations. It had been greatly strengthened by the construction of successive defensive lines, and a complete system of roads, trench railways and water supply installed. Close behind it lay the coal collieries of northern France and a break through at this point would have had far-reaching tactical and strategical results. It was confidently expected that this vital sector would be attacked during the looked-for German offensive and every effort was made to secure it against surprise attacks. Two hundred and fifty miles of trenches, 300 miles of barbed wire entanglements and 200 tunnelled machine-gun emplacements were completed by the Canadians in carrying out their task.

During January little activity took place on the enemy front, but during February and March he carried on much work preparing for an offensive, raiding the Canadian lines and carrying on artillery shoots with explosive and gas shells. Retaliatory measures soon caused a cessation in this type of warfare.

When the initial German offensive occurred, on March 21st, the Canadian Corps, under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, K.C.B., G.C.M.G., contained four divisions. These were commanded by Major-General Sir A. C. Macdonell, First Canadian division; Major-General Sir H. E. Burstall, Second Canadian division; Major-General L. J. Lipsett, Third Canadian division; Major-General Sir D. Watson, Fourth Canadian division.

The account here given of the last thrilling one hundred days


SKETCH
No. 1
SHOWING SECTORS HELD BY
CANADIAN CORPS
JAN 1st – MAR 24th 1918.
Loos
Annay
HILL 70.
Hill 70
Cite St Auguste
Cite St Laurent
Cite St Emile
ST. EMILE.
LENS.
LENS
CANAL DE LA HAUTE DEULE
Sallaumines Hill
Avion
AVION.
Mericourt
GERMAN FRONT LINE.
British Front Line
MERICOURT.
ACHEVILLE
Acheville
Vimy.
A.N.Hayne.

Where the Canadians Held the Line at the Beginning of the Great Enemy Attack of March 21, 1918 of the war with the Canadian Corps is largely taken from the official narratives of the Canadian Corps commander and the official correspondent of the overseas ministry.

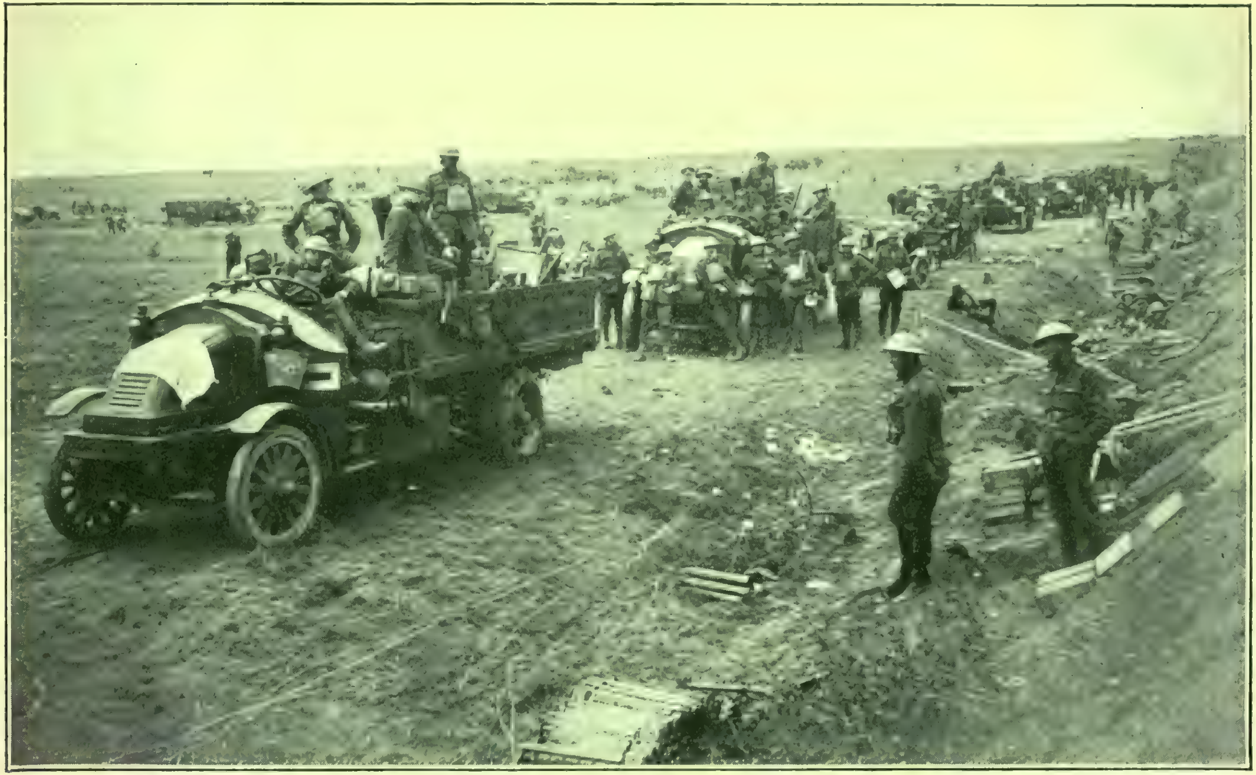
On the early morning of March 21, 1918, the enemy launched his great attack on the fronts of the Fifth and Third British armies. It was soon evident that the opening stages of the battle were going in favor of the Germans. The Canadian Corps was at that time holding the line in front of Vimy Ridge from Mericourt to Hill 70, with the Second division in rest at Auchel. The great German offensive did not directly engage the Canadians, but at 3.50 P. M., March 21st, the Canadian Corps headquarters received the first order from army headquarters, setting the corps in motion on a period of activity which did not cease till the armistice.

At 3.50 P. M. on the 21st the First Army ordered the Canadian Corps to take over the front of the Sixty-second division in the Acheville section.

During the night of 22d to 23d the First Canadian Motor Machine Gun brigade, then in the line on the Vimy sector, was withdrawn and by midnight following all batteries were in action on a thirty-five-mile front east of Amiens, having traveled over one hundred miles during the day.

The First C. M. M. G. brigade (Lieutenant-Colonel W. K. Walker), under orders of the Fifth and later Fourth Army, was ordered to fight a rearguard action to delay the advance of the enemy, and to fill dangerous gaps on the army front. For nineteen days that unit was continuously in action north and south of the Somme, fighting against overwhelming odds. It fought over 200 square miles of territory. It is difficult to appraise to its correct extent the influence, material and moral, that the forty machine guns of that unit had in the events which were then taking place. The losses suffered amounted to about seventy-five per cent of the trench strength of the unit.

Then followed a period of activity for the Canadian Corps, as various divisions were despatched hither and thither depending upon where the German advance seemed most threatening. On one night, for example, the First Canadian division was moved by bus to the Couturelle area but at dawn the enemy struck heavily along the Scarpe River and the First division, at 10 A. M. next morning, was ordered to retain the busses and return to the Arras-



Canadian Official Photograph. *Copyright Reserved.*

WAITING THE CALL TO ACTION

Canadian Motor Machine Gun Section on the Cambrai road ready to go into battle. Powerful lorries loaded with guns, men and ammunition equipped and anxious to make it hot for the Hun.

Dainville area. As some of the busses had returned and the roads were crowded with troops on the move the move was difficult but the division extricated itself and returned.

This constant shifting of the Canadian divisions resulted in the corps being split up and the divisions being placed under three different corps in two armies. This was not at all satisfactory to the Canadian Corps commander and he made strong representations to the army commander offering suggestions which would reconcile the Canadian policy with the tactical and administrative requirements. As a result two divisions were returned to the corps on March 29th.

On April 8th the Canadian Corps was holding a front of nine miles and the Second division a front of two and a half miles. This only allowed of the front being very lightly held, and Sir Arthur Currie organized two special brigades made up of tunnelling companies, pioneers, re-enforcements, and other odds and ends as a reserve, and in addition to these measures each division organized its own "last resort reserves," consisting of the personnel left at transport lines, and detailed to defend definite localities.

"Every contingency," says Sir Arthur, "was prepared for down to the minutest detail, and nothing could be more inspiring than to witness the extraordinary spirit displayed by everybody in their untiring labor and ceaseless vigilance."

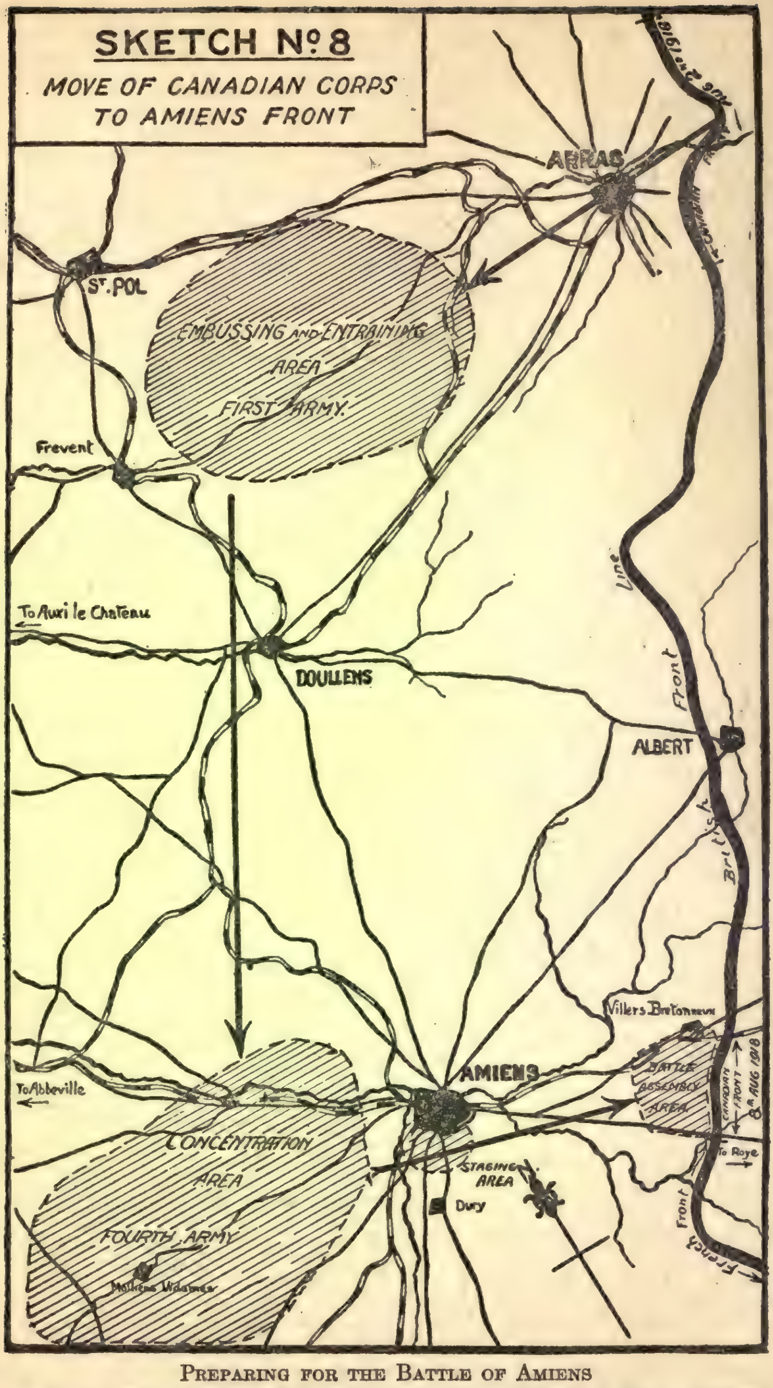
Extended almost to the breaking point, in danger of being annihilated by overwhelming attacks, the corps confidently awaited the assault. All ranks of the corps were unanimous in their ardent resolve to hold to the very last every inch of the ground entrusted to their keeping.

It was for them a matter of great pride that their front was substantially the only part of the British lines which had not budged.

PREPARATION FOR THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

The First, Third and Fourth Canadian divisions, by May 7th were in reserve, training in open warfare and exercises calculated to improve the health and spirits of the troops. The Second Canadian division remained in the line just south of Arras.

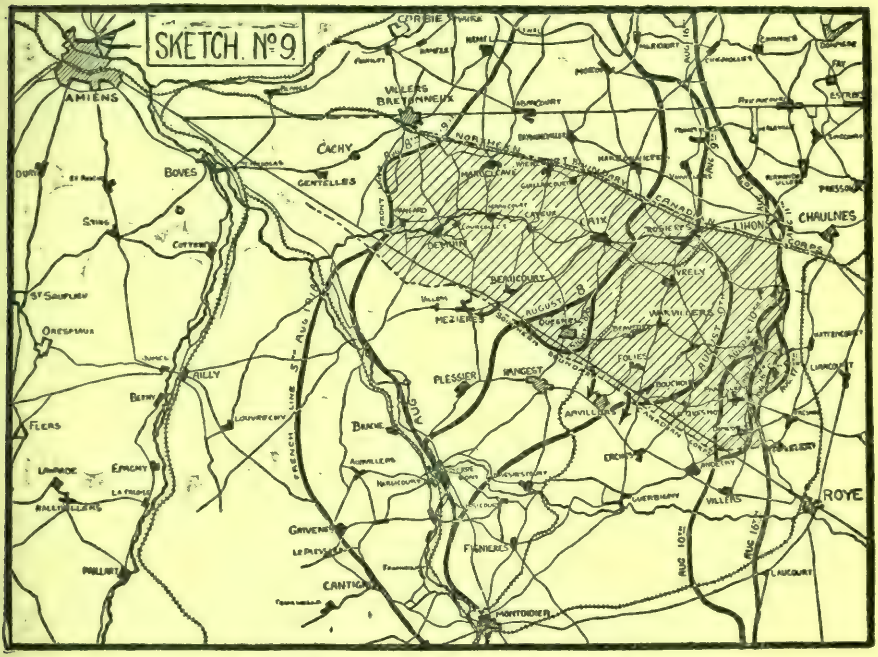
The Amiens operation was first discussed at a conference on July 21st at which the Canadian Corps commander was present.


SKETCH No 8
MOVE OF CANADIAN CORPS TO AMIENS FRONT
Aug 2nd 1918
Canadian Front
ARRAS
St. POL
EMBUSSING AND ENTRAINING AREA FIRST ARMY
Frevent
To Auxi le Chateau
DOULLENS
Line
Front
ALBERT
British
Villers Bretonneux
BATTLE ASSEMBLY AREA
CANADIAN FRONT
8th AUG 1918
AMIENS
To Abbeville
CONCENTRATION AREA FOURTH ARMY
Molliens Vidame
STAGING AREA
Dury
To Roye
Front
French

PREPARING FOR THE BATTLE OF AMIENS

Map showing transfer of Canadian corps from Arras to Amiens. General Currie says: "These moves were carried out by strategical trains, busses and route marches with the utmost secrecy."

It was most essential that the enemy should be taken by surprise in this most vital sector and elaborate plans were made to deceive him. The Canadians were known as "shock troops" and their appearance generally indicated an offensive. Accordingly, while plans were carried out for an attack on Orange Hill, in front of Arras, two Canadian battalions were sent north to the Kemmel area where they were promptly identified. Wireless outfits were also sent into the same sectors and messages transmitted for the purpose of being picked up by the enemy's intelligence branch. Two clearing stations were also sent into the same area. Meanwhile, ostensibly for a Canadian attack on Orange Hill, tanks were ostentatiously assembled near St. Pol.


SKETCH. Nº9
AMIENS
CORBIE
VILLERS BRETONNEUX
CACHY
GENTELLES
BOVES
DEMUIN
BEAUCOURT
MEZIERES
PLESSIER
HANGEST
ARVILLERS
CAIX
ROSIERES
LIHONS
CHAULNES
VRELY
WARVILLERS
FOLIES
BOUCHOIR
ROYE
VILLERS
MONTDIDIER
FIGNIERES
CANTIGNY
AILLY
FLERS
BRACHE
NORTHERN BOUNDARY
CANADIAN CORPS
SOUTHERN BOUNDARY
FRENCH LINE 5th AUG 1918
FRONT LINE
AUGUST 8
AUG 9th
AUG 10th
AUG 16th
AUGUST 10th

THE SWEEP OF THE CANADIAN CORPS

Map showing allied drive August 5–17, 1918. The shaded portion indicates the 14-mile advance of the Canadians. General Currie says: "The surprise had been complete and overwhelming. . . . A captured German officer stated that the Canadians were believed to be on the Kemmel front."

An army order issued on July 29th stated that the Canadian Corps was to move northward to the Second British Army area. On the same day the Canadian divisional commanders were told of the impending operations in front of Amiens but were instructed not to discuss the matter with their subordinate commanders.

In order to further deceive our own troops as to their destination a letter issued by the First Army was repeated to all Canadian units stating that the Canadian Corps was being transferred to the Fourth Army.

When the actual order came to move few knew either of the destination or the future plans of the corps. All formations traveled by night. In spite of enormous difficulties the plans of the staff were carried out to the letter and on the night of August 7th infantry, cavalry, artillery, tanks, engineers, motor machine guns and other arms of the service were mobilized in Gentilles Wood and its neighbourhood.

It is interesting to know that in spite of the tremendous difficulties of the move every man received his rations, his parcels and letters from home, and even the Y. M. C. A. and Padres had succeeded in bringing along huge boilers of tea and quantities of chocolate, biscuits, and cigarettes which were given away to all gratis. At the rear everything was in readiness to forward supplies and munitions as soon as the attack began, while the ambulances were ready to receive the inevitable toll of wounded. Needless to say it was quite a feat to concentrate such huge numbers of men, horses, guns, tanks and material without causing suspicion in the enemy. To drown the noise of the tank engines clanking forward during the night large bombing planes flew low over the trenches and drowned the sound so effectively that nothing seemed to be suspected by the enemy.

On the right of the 20,000 yards of front to be attacked was the First French Army, in the centre the Canadian Corps, on the left the Australian corps and left of that again the Third British corps.

The Canadian front was about 8,500 yards long and the Canadian division, numbering from the left were the Second, First and Third with the Fourth in reserve. Each division had an allotment of tanks. The general scheme of attack was to rapidly push through the enemy's forward area for some two miles under cover of a dense artillery barrage, overcome the machine-gun defences with tanks and let the cavalry through together with the supporting force of motor machine guns, cyclist battalion and Newton mortars on trucks.

The attack began at 4.20 A. M., on August 8th, and was immediately successful at all points. No registering shots had been fired by the artillery and in consequence the enemy was taken completely by surprise when our barrage fell on him quickly followed by our men. There was a mist which hid the infantrymen's signals for artillery support and for once the weather favored us. As the infantry went forward our field guns limbered up and followed while the "heavies" came on shortly after. Taking their locations as previously arranged they recommenced their methodical firing by the map.

The cavalry came into action about noon. Horses and guns extended along a five-mile front to a depth of 1,000 yards. As they rode into action our men cheered them enthusiastically for they made a fine appearance dashing here and there routing out machine gunners and riflemen and co-operating with the tanks to clear the ground for the men to advance.

By night the Canadians had advanced 14,000 yards, captured 6,000 prisoners, 100 guns and large amounts of material.

On the day following the advance continued for another four miles with a maximum penetration of six and a half miles at some points. On the 10th the attack was continued along the old Somme area of 1916 where old trenches and wire overgrown with weeds afforded the enemy excellent shelter and defences for machine guns.

Powerful enemy reserves had now arrived to stem the attack of the Canadian and Australian troops. Six fresh enemy divisions and a number of batteries had arrived and were fighting in heavily entrenched positions. Accordingly the Canadian Corps commander considered it inadvisable to attempt further progress by infantry fighting and recommended that rather than waste the strength of the corps upon operations which would not bring adequate results the Canadians should be withdrawn, rested for a few days and used to make another surprise attack towards Bapaume.

The Canadian Corps was relieved on the 19th and the front handed over to the Australian corps.

In the battle of Amiens, from August 8th to August 22d, the Canadians had fought and overcome ten German divisions, while five others had been partially engaged. They also captured 9,131 prisoners, 190 guns and more than 1,000 machine guns and trench mortars. In all sixty-seven square miles containing twenty-seven towns and villages had been captured by them, and the depth of front penetrated was fourteen miles.

The rear of an advancing army is almost more interesting than the front because there is more to see and more time and opportunity to see it. Back of the infantry moved the guns ever edging forward to new locations, while field ambulances, hospitals, mobile repair shops, railheads, supply dumps, horse lines, headquarters and transport settlements followed in the wake of the advance.

The casualties suffered by the Canadian Corps in the fourteen days of heavy fighting amounted to 579 officers and 10,783 men.

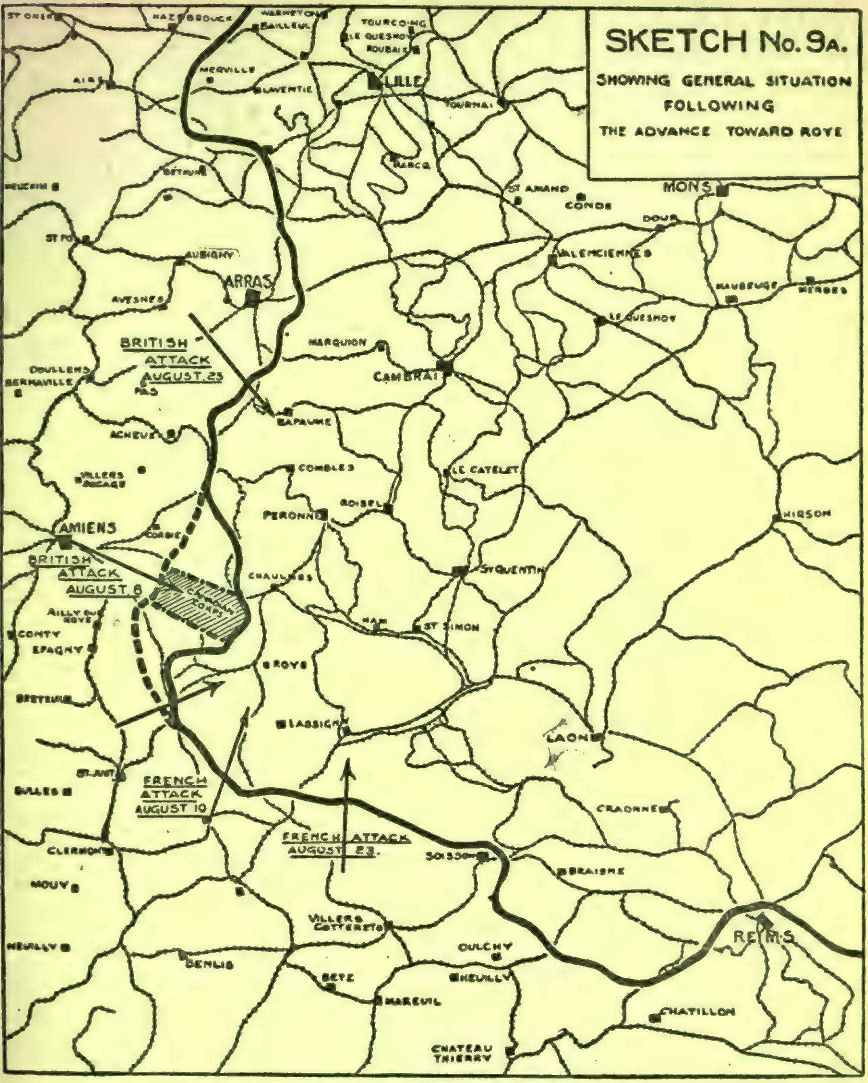
BATTLE OF CAMBRAI

The Canadian Corps then moved up to Arras for the battle of Cambrai and the Hindenburg line. The attack in front of Arras was planned for August 26th which gave the Canadians three days to concentrate. The Canadian Corps, now flushed with their great victory, were keen for the coming attack.

There were four main systems of defences facing the Canadians comprising the old German front line east of Monchy, the Fresnes-Rouvroy line, the Drocourt-Quéant line and the Canal du Nord line, making, without doubt, one of the strongest defensive systems on the western front. As a preliminary to attacking the old German system it was essential to capture the old British lines lost in the recent fighting, organized in depth some 5,000 yards and dominated by the height of Monchy.

CANADIANS CARRY MONCHY

On August 26th, at 3 A. M., the attack was launched under the usual artillery and machine-gun barrages. It made good progress, the village of Monchy being entered early in the day after a brilliant encircling attack carried out by the Eighth brigade (General D.C. Draper). The enemy fought strenuously, and several counter-attacks were repulsed. Three German divisions were identified and 2,000 prisoners captured. On the 28th the attack was resumed by the Second and Third divisions, the fighting was most severe, and at nightfall the general line of the Second division was little in advance of the line held the night before,


SKETCH No. 9A.
SHOWING GENERAL SITUATION FOLLOWING THE ADVANCE TOWARD ROYE
BRITISH ATTACK AUGUST 23
BRITISH ATTACK AUGUST 8
FRENCH ATTACK AUGUST 10
FRENCH ATTACK AUGUST 23.
CANADIAN CORPS
ARRAS
AMIENS
MONS
LILLE
CAMBRAI
BAPAUME
PERONNE
ROYE
LASSIGNY
ST QUENTIN
LAON
SOISSONS
REIMS
VALENCIENNES
MAUBEUGE
CHATEAU THIERRY

The New Objectives: Bapaume, Roye and Lassigny

Map of the battle front in France, August 20, 1918. Of the fighting at this time General Currie says: "The battle was now in full swing on the centre and southern parts of the Somme salient. North of the Somme the British Third Army made some local attacks on the 21st, and on the 24th attacked heavily on a broad front in the direction of Bapaume. On the whole Somme salient the Germans were retiring slowly, fighting a stubborn rearguard action, actively pressed everywhere by the allied armies."

although a few small parties of stubborn men were still as far forward as the wire of the Fresnes-Rouvroy line. Enemy re-enforcements were seen dribbling forward all day.

On the 30th, following the reported capture of Hindcourt by a British division, the First division attacked the Vis-en-Artois switch, Upton Wood and the Fresnes-Rouvroy line. The attack, a daring manœuvre organized and carried out by the First brigade under cover of very ingenious barrages, was eminently successful. It was necessary to postpone the attack on the Drocourt-Quéant line until September 2d, and the day of September 1st was employed in minor operations to improve the jumping-off line. The important strong point, known as the Crow's Nest, was captured by the Third brigade.

THE FAMOUS DROCOURT-QUÉANT SWITCH LINE

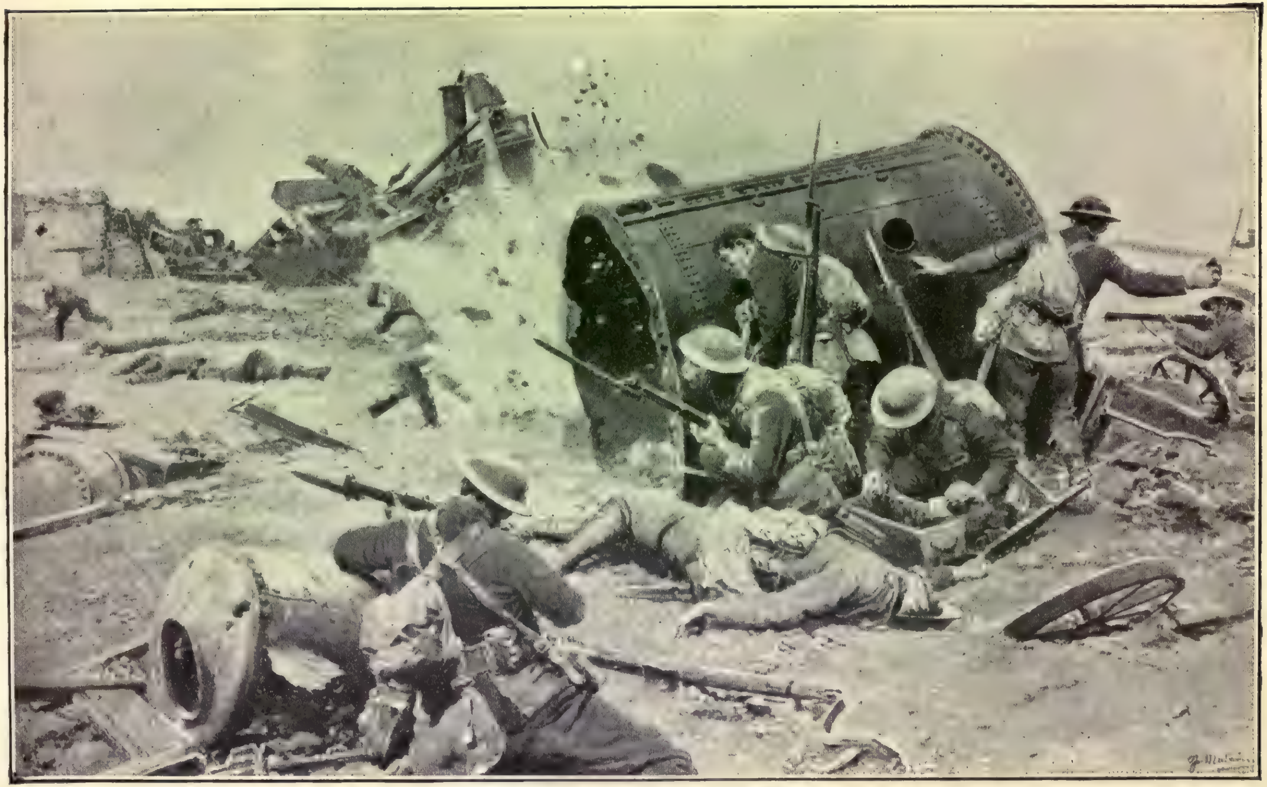
The major attack against the Drocourt-Quéant switch line was launched on September 2d, and, assisted by tanks, progressed rapidly. The infantry captured both the famous Drocourt-Quéant switch itself on a front of 7,000 yards, and its support line, including the village of Dury. Wired trenches and sunken roads however prevented the armoured cars and Tenth Royal Hussars from getting through to the Canal du Nord. In spite of the fact that the enemy had concentrated eight divisions opposite the Canadian Corps the latter would not be denied and a penetration of 6,000 yards and the capture of 5,000 prisoners testified to the success of the day's work.

The Germans were confident that this line, a sort of national life-belt, would prove impregnable. This confidence appeared to be justified, for it consisted of five lines of trenches heavily wired and fortified, while deep dug-outs and tunnels formed a maze of underground works; yet the trench system which took more than two years to build was carried by the Canadians in less than an hour.

THE CANAL NORD LINE

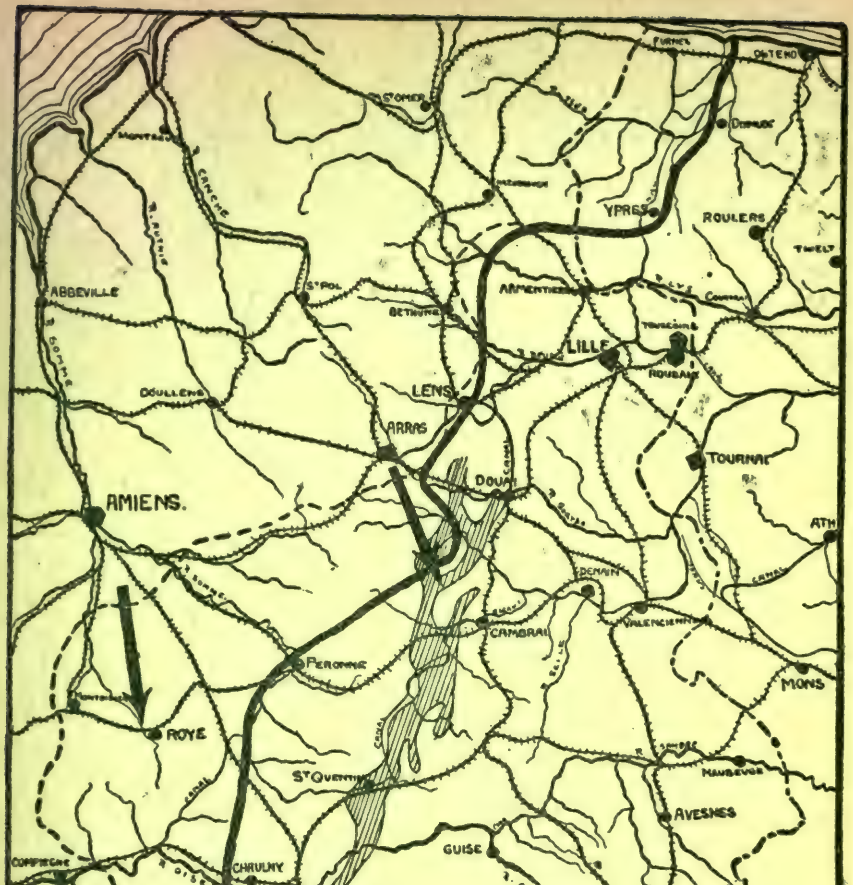
To attack the Canal Nord position required time for reorganization and preparation. The canal was under direct observation, was heavily wired and to carry it successfully meant that the operation had to be part of a general scheme which took time to arrange.

In the interval the Canadian division was rested and refitted



CANADA'S DAY AT COURCELETTE

Furious fighting in a sugar refinery where the men from the Dominion drove the enemy from the ruins, the adjacent trenches and finally from the village itself.


OSTEND
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ROYE
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COMPIEGNE
R. OISE
CHAUNY
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VERVINS
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SOISSONS
LAON
ROCROI
R. AISNE
CHARLEVILLE
MEZIERES
CH. THIERRY
R. MARNE
RETHEL
R. VESLE
REIMS
SEDAN
R. MEUSE
EPERNAY

Breaking the Hindenburg Line

The shaded portions show the intricate Hindenburg defence system. The arrows show the Canadian attacks. Heavy black line is the line of September 3, 1918; broken line to the left is the allied line of July 15th.

and as much artillery as possible taken out of the line. Wire cutting operations, counter battery work and gas concentration were carried on against the enemy in preparation for the final operations. Ammunition dumps and huge piles of bridging material required for the Canal Nord were brought forward and everything necessary got in readiness.

During this period Major General, Lipsett, commanding officer of the Third Canadian division, a fine soldier and a brave gentleman, truly loved by all Canadians in France, was transferred to the command of the Fourth British division and was succeeded by Brigadier-General Loomis. When General Lipsett was killed in action shortly afterwards his death was felt to be a personal loss by every Canadian soldier.

The attack of September 27th by the Canadian Corps was part of a large offensive. The Canadians had a battle front of 6,400 yards along the canal but on only 2,600 yards of this was it possible to effect a crossing. After crossing on this narrow front the Canadians were expected to expand fanwise until they held a front of 15,000 yards. The Canadians were to protect the left flank of the Third Army, seize the high ground overlooking the Sensee Valley and capture Bourlon Wood.

At 5.20 A. M. an eighteen-pounder crashed twice, upon which the whole front broke into a terrific roar. A heavy barrage preceded the infantry and the First and Fourth Canadian divisions advanced, accompanied by tanks. At seven o'clock the Fourth division was 1,000 yards beyond the Canal Nord, while the First division was rolling up the Canal Nord line. The enemy fought very stubbornly but our infantry, advancing under a most carefully planned barrage, kept steadily advancing. Meanwhile the engineers, working feverishly, constructed bridges over which light, medium and heavy guns passed and went into action at the gallop.

The rapidity of our advance astonished the enemy, many guns were taken and by nine o'clock the Fourth division had reached the outskirts of Bourlon Wood, which was captured by one o'clock. Meanwhile the "Old First" division had seized its objectives and was hanging on.

Our line had been pushed forward 7,000 yards at its farthest point, and 4,000 prisoners and 102 guns as well as hundreds of machine guns had been captured in this fine bit of tactical work.

Next day, September 28th, the Third, Fourth and First Canadian and Eleventh British divisions continued the advance with the Seventeenth British corps on our left. Heavy fighting was encountered but by evening the Canadian line had been advanced 3,000 yards and our front was established on the high ground overlooking Cambrai. Another 1,000 prisoners and thirty guns were captured during the day.

On Sunday, September 28th, the fighting became heavier, and though 3,000 yards advance was made in places, other sections were held up by machine-gun fire, notably the First division whose flank had become exposed owing to the failure of British troops on the left to keep pace with them. Prisoners captured September 30th stated that they had been instructed to hold the ground at all cost.

On October 1st the enemy, flinging wave after wave of infantry upon our line, made a desperate endeavour to check our advance, without any consideration of the cost of life exacted.

To quote Sir Arthur Currie: "The tremendous exertions and considerable casualties consequent upon the four days' almost continuous fighting had made heavy inroads on the freshness and efficiency of all arms. On the other hand it was known that the enemy had suffered severely, and it was quite possible that matters had reached a stage where he no longer considered the retention of this position worth while. It was, therefore, decided that the assault would be continued on October 1st. The attack made excellent progress in the early stages. The decision of the enemy to resist till the last quickly manifested itself. About 10 A. M. heavy counter-attacks developed.

"To continue to throw tired troops against such opposition without giving them an opportunity to refit and recuperate, was obviously inviting a serious failure, and I accordingly decided to break off the engagement. The five days' fighting had yielded practical gains of a very valuable nature as well as 7,059 prisoners and 205 guns. We had gone through the last organized system of defence on our front, and our advance constituted a direct threat on the rear of the troops to the north, and their withdrawal had now begun.

"Although the ground gained on the 1st of October was not extensive the effects of the battle and of the previous four days' fighting were far-reaching and made possible the subsequent advances of October and November, in so far as the divisions engaged against the Canadian Corps drew heavily on the enemy's reserve which had now been greatly reduced.

"It is worthy of note that the enemy employed six divisions to re-enforce the four divisions already in the line, making a total of ten divisions engaged since September 27th by the Canadian Corps. In the same period only three additional divisions and one regiment were employed by the Germans to re-enforce the front from Honnecourt to Cambrai, a front of approximately 18,000 yards. This comparison of employment of reserves showed clearly that the enemy was greatly perturbed by the success of our advance and the serious threat it offered, especially to his northern defences."

THE CAPTURE OF CAMBRAI

The high ground to the north and northwest of Cambrai was now in Canadian hands, the British were approaching on the other side of the town and there was but one thing left for the enemy to do.

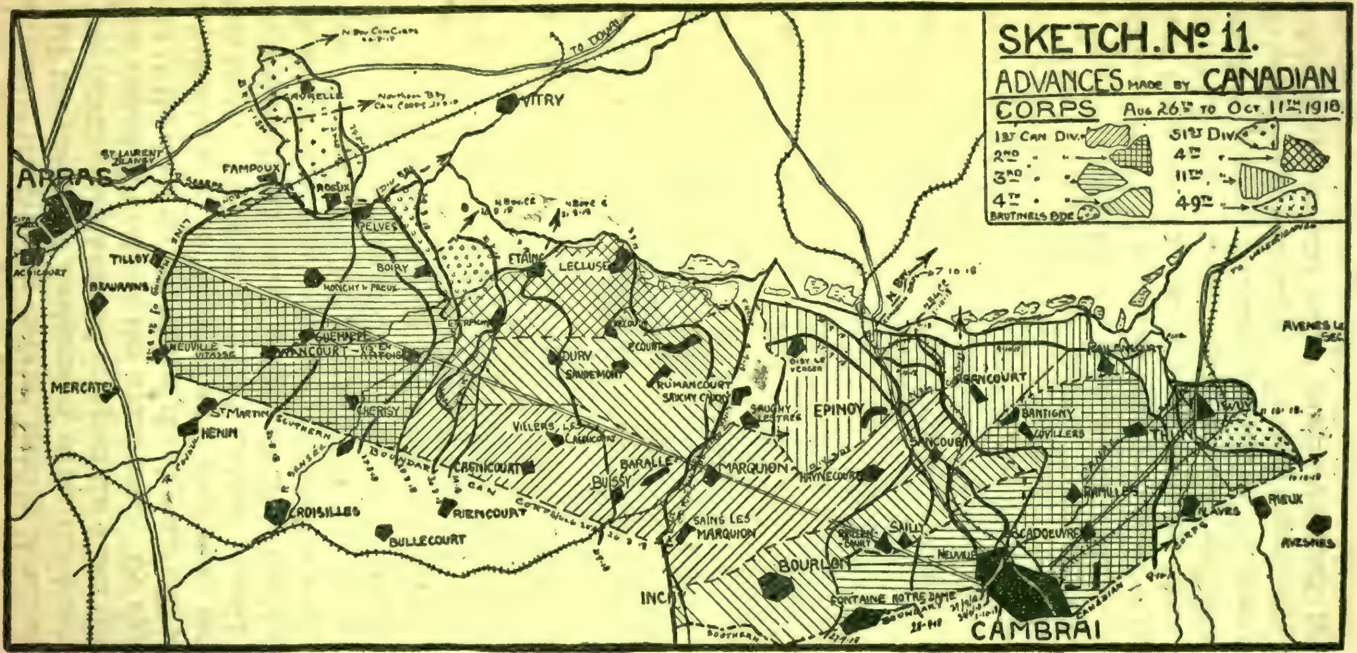
In five days of continuous battle the four Canadian divisions, the Eleventh British and part of the Fifty-sixth British division had crossed the Canal Nord, and had won one commanding position after another in the face of a most bitter opposition, which in itself indicated how vital was the ground to the enemy. In the final two days he had used twelve divisions in counter-attacks vainly trying to stem our advance.

Some idea of the casualties which the enemy must have sustained may be gauged from the fact that on one day, October 1st, we used 7,000 tons of shells.

"At 4.30 A. M., October 8th, the Third Army attacked, and at the same hour an artillery demonstration was carried out on the Canadian front. In spite of the darkness of a rainy night the Canadian attack was launched successfully at 1.30 A. M., October 9th. Rapid progress was made. Cork bridges were thrown across the canal and the Third division patrols were pushing into Cambrai before dawn."

Said Mr. James, official correspondent:

"At half-past one o'clock on the morning of October 9th, in utter darkness, the Canadians entered Cambrai. They took the


SKETCH. No 11.
ADVANCES MADE BY CANADIAN CORPS Aug 26th to Oct. 11th 1918.
1st Can Div.
2nd
3rd
4th
Brutinels Bde
51st Div
4th
11th
49th
ARRAS
St Laurent Blangy
Fampoux
Gavrelle
Roeux
Pelves
Vitry
To Douai
Tilloy
Achicourt
Beaurains
Boiry
Monchy le Preux
Etaing
Lecluse
Guemappe
Neuville Vitasse
Wancourt
Vis en Artois
Mercatel
St Martin
Henin
Cherisy
Southern Boundary
Croisilles
Bullecourt
Riencourt
Cagnicourt
Villers les Cagnicourt
Dury
Saudemont
Ecourt
Rumaucourt
Sauchy Cauchy
Baralle
Buissy
Marquion
Sains les Marquion
Oisy le Verger
Sauchy Lestree
Epinoy
Haynecourt
Bourlon
Inc
Fontaine Notre Dame
Sailly
Neuville
Sancourt
Abancourt
Bantigny
Cuvillers
Ramillies
Escadoeuvres
Iwuy
Naves
Rieux
Avesnes le Sec
Avesnes
CAMBRAI

How Cambrai was Won by the Canadians

The Arras-Cambrai operations involved the stiffest kind of fighting for the Canadian Corps, but despite resistance they ploughed into the German armies from the initial attack of August 26, 1918, till they achieved the capture of Cambrai on October 9th. General Currie says: "Cambrai was to be deliberately set on fire by the enemy. Huge fires were burning in the Square when our patrols went through, and many others broke out in all parts of the city. Piles of inflammable material were found ready for the torch, but the enemy was unable to carry out his intention owing to our unexpected attack and rapid progress. . . . The fires were successfully checked by a large detachment of Canadian engineers who entered the city with the patrols."

garrison of the town by surprise, quickly obtained the upper hand in all the numerous instances of street encounters and house-to-house fighting, reached and occupied the Place d'Armes, and from there spread throughout the entire area. By daylight they were clear of the southeastern edge of the city and well along the Avenue de Valenciennes; in the southwest they were established at the Paris Gate. Units of our Third division pressed due east to the line of the Scheldt Canal, secured all bridgeheads as far as Eswars, and captured several villages and hundreds of prisoners. By 6 A. M. our engineers had spanned the canal with a pontoon bridge. British troops on the right won to the road leading to Le Cateau.

"We had refrained from shelling Cambrai, hoping to get possession of it unbroken. With this end in view we had moved against it without artillery preparation, had entered it and overcome the resistance of its garrison with bayonet and machine gun. But our care went for nothing. Again the Hun played true to his nature and his reputation. Explosions great and small, followed in some cases by the crashing down of roofs and walls, in others by the leaping up of fires, resounded from all quarters of the town throughout the day of our occupation. Our men fought the garrison —but they could not foresee or forestall the explosions. The city had been thickly planted with mines and incendiary bombs by the enemy, before his flight. The time fuses and other detonating contrivances had not been set for a simultaneous explosion. Singly and in couples, now in one street and again in another, the detonating of mines and bombs continued all day, varied occasionally by the bursting of shells. The Place d'Armes, intact at the time of our entrance, was a square of ruins by nine o'clock that morning. The destructive work of these set explosives was somewhat feebly assisted by occasional shells."

"The battle of Arras-Cambrai," said the corps commander, "so fruitful in results, was now closed. Since August 26th, the Canadian Corps had advanced twenty-three miles, fighting for every foot of the ground and overcoming the most bitter resistance. In that period the Canadian Corps engaged and defeated decisively thirty-one German divisions, re-enforced by numerous marksmen and machine-gun companies. These divisions were met in strongly fortified positions and under conditions most favorable to the defence.

"In this battle 18,585 prisoners were captured by us together with 371 guns, 1,923 machine guns, and many trench mortars. Over 116 square miles of French soil containing fifty-four towns and villages and including the city of Cambrai were liberated. The severity of the fighting and the heroism of our troops may be gathered from the casualties suffered between August 22d and October 11th, which are as follows:

	OFFICERS	OTHER RANKS
Killed	296	4,071
Missing	18	1,912
Wounded	1,230	23,279
Total	1,544	29,262

"Considering the great number of German divisions engaged, and the tremendous artillery and machine-gun fire power at their disposal the comparative lightness of our casualties testified to the excellence of precautions taken by divisional, brigade and regimental officers to minimize the loss of life, having ever in mind the performance of their duty and the accomplishment of their heavy task."

PURSUING THE ENEMY IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

While some of the Canadians endeavoured to save Cambrai from the flames others pushed forward on the enemy's heels. After being held before the flooded Canal de la Sensee for a few days, patrols found, on October 17th, that the Germans were falling back under cover of a thick fog. On the following day practically all of the infantry of the First and Fourth divisions had crossed the canal and the enemy was closely pursued with the aid of cyclists, cavalry and mounted machine-gun units.

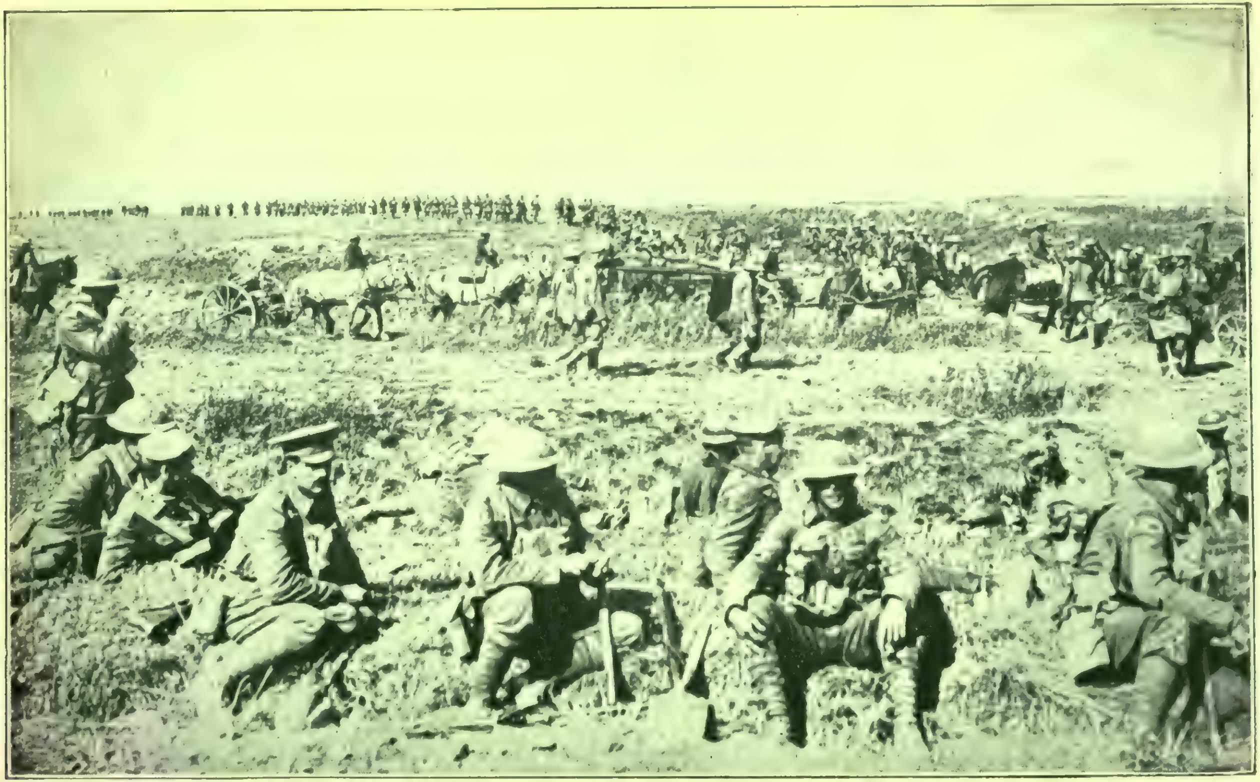
The enemy's demolition of roads, bridges and railways was well planned and thoroughly carried out, and the reconstructive work necessary taxed the resources of the engineers in men and material to the utmost. During the advance a large number of towns were liberated, and as the civilian population had been left without food the duty of feeding these devolved upon the Canadians. Over 70,000 civilians were thus liberated and looked after before Valenciennes was reached, and the extra work devolving upon the horse transport of the Army Service Corps in bringing up the vast quantities of food necessary was very great.

On October 19th the advance continued on the whole corps front, Denain being captured that day. In this large town "there were over 20,000 civilians to greet the Canadians when they entered the place on the heels of the retreating Germans, who greeted our men with indescribable enthusiasm. They were told by the enemy that if they displayed flags or any signs of rejoicing the town would be bombed, but the French people knew differently, and when the infantry swarmed into the town at one end as the Boche galloped out of the other, flags of the Allies appeared as if by magic.

"As soon as the occupation of Denain had been definitely established, a well-known French Canadian officer was sent forward as the town commandant. Earlier in the war this officer was awarded the Legion of Honour by the French authorities for gallantry in the field, and when the civilians saw the ribbon of this honour on his tunic and found that he was a French Canadian, he was given a welcome and reception that could not have been more demonstrative or sincere to the President of the French Republic or the King of the British Empire. The men shook his hand until his arm ached and the women kissed him in the most liberal and unabashed manner. He is now regarded by them as a kind of president or king. His word is law, and his instructions are obeyed with a cheerful willingness."

Meanwhile the Canadian cavalry had been busy and the following interesting account from the official correspondent of the overseas ministry shows that the war had not been robbed of its spectacular side altogether:

"Le Cateau fell to battalions of the Manchester, Lancashire, Dublin, and Inniskilling Fusiliers and the Connaught Rangers on the 10th of October; but the first British troops to enter the town were patrols of the Fort Garry Horse, a regiment of the Canadian cavalry brigade. In less than twenty-four hours the Canadian cavalrymen with other troops advanced eight miles on a three-mile front, cleared that section of the country of the enemy, and thus opened the road for the infantry to forge ahead without hindrance, except from a limited volume of shell fire, into Le Cateau, captured 499 prisoners, several artillery pieces of different calibres, a few trench mortars, tank rifles, two motor-cars, 100 machine guns, and killed a large number of Germans.



Canadian Official Photograph

From Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

CANADIANS IN THE GREAT CAMBRAI DRIVE

One of the busy scenes just preceding the victorious attack by the Canadians upon Cambrai. In the center can be seen captured Germans carrying in one of their wounded comrades.

"Officers and troopers were almost pulled from their horses as they passed up the streets by the women, who seemed to believe that the best way they could show their gratitude was to kiss every khaki-clad figure, mounted or dismounted, irrespective of rank or anything else. They were delirious with joy. They laughed and cried almost at the same time. In one village men and women rushed out of their houses with cups of coffee and bottles of wine, while machine-gun bullets from enemy positions ahead spat about the street. Immediate danger seemed of small consequence in face of the fact that deliverance had come after four years of serfdom, which the entry of the Canadians had brought to an end. One officer of Lord Strathcona's Horse was pulled from his charger and forced to submit to a heavy barrage of kisses and embraces. This advance to Le Cateau is quite the most romantic experience the Canadian cavalry brigade has had.

"But the incidents with the French villages were only pleasant punctuations in an operation that produced some spectacular features. Several times the troopers used their sabres generously. One squadron of the Fort Garry Horse charged at the gallop into Cattigny Wood, where machine guns were making as much noise as a busy boiler factory produces; and before the wood was finally cleared, approximately 100 Germans were killed with the sabre, and those who escaped death, numbering 200, were taken prisoners.

"An officer with a troop of the Fort Garrys in another case galloped down on a nest of fifteen machine guns. The Boche stood to his guns for a time, and directed such a fire on the charging cavalrymen that soon nearly all the horses were casualties. Undaunted, the troopers pressed forward on foot. By this time the Germans' nerves failed them, and they turned and fled and kept going eastward until rounded up by supporting forces on the right."

CAPTURE OF VALENCIENNES

The division had continued to push forward in face of an ever-increasing opposition until, on October 25th, the canal and inundated area in front of Valenciennes was encountered. Plans were prepared by the First Army to take the city by the Twenty-second and Canadian corps. The former was to take Mt. Houy on October 28th and the latter the high ground overlooking Valenciennes from the south. The Twenty-second corps failed to take

Mt. Houy and the whole of the operation was turned over to the Canadian Corps.

On November 1st the Canadian assault succeeded from the beginning and the objectives were quickly gained. Eight hundred enemy dead were buried and 1,300 prisoners captured while the Canadians had only eighty killed and 300 wounded. Valenciennes was freed of the enemy by night.

"Leap-frogging each other the four Canadian divisions maintained their steady progress into the heart of the Belgium coal district, reaching the outskirts of Mons on the 10th instant, and during the night of November 10th to 11th the divisions resumed their advance, and immediately after dark the troops of the Seventh brigade commenced to close in, and an entry into Mons by way of the railway station was effected before midnight. By 6 A. M., November 11th, the stubborn machine-gun resistance had been broken and Mons cleared of the enemy.

"In the meantime word had been received through First Army that hostilities would cease at 11 A. M. on November 11th, the armistice having been signed on acceptance of our terms. To secure a satisfactory line for the defence of Mons our line was further advanced and six villages and two woods were captured.

"Between October 11th and November 11th the Canadian Corps had advanced to a total depth exceeding 91,000 yards, through a country in which the enemy had destroyed railways, bridges, and roads and flooded areas to further impede our progress. To the normal difficulty of moving and supplying a large number of men in a comparatively restricted area were added the necessity of feeding several hundred thousand people, chiefly women and children, left in a starving condition by the enemy. Several deaths by starvation were experienced in villages or towns which, being kept under hostile shell fire and defended by machine guns, could not be captured rapidly by our troops.

"When it is recalled that since August 8th the Canadian Corps had fought battles of the first magnitude, having a direct bearing on the general situation, and contributing to an extent difficult to realize to the defeat of the German armies in the field, this advance under most difficult conditions constitutes a most decisive test of the superior energy and power of endurance of our men. It is befitting that the capture of Mons should close the fighting record of the Canadian troops in which every battle they fought is a resplendent page of glory.

"Between August 8th and November 11th, the following had been captured:

Prisoners	31,537
Guns, heavy and field	623
Machine guns	2,842
Trench mortars	336

"Over 500 square miles of territory and 228 cities, towns and villages had been liberated, including the cities of Cambrai, Denain, Valenciennes, and Mons. From August 8th to October 11th, not less than forty-seven German divisions had been engaged and defeated by the Canadian Corps, that is, nearly a quarter of the total German forces on the western front. After October 11th, the disorganisation of the German troops on our front was such that it was difficult to determine with exactitude the importance of the elements of many divisions engaged."

ON THE DAY OF THE ARMISTICE

At 11 A. M., on November 11th, a great stillness came over the battle front, the more noticeable as the last shells had left the guns but a few minutes before. It was a justifiable pride that the Canadians felt in having added Mons, from which the great retreat of the British Army had begun in 1914, to their scroll of victories. The town that will live in British annals had been the beginning of the retreat of the finest force of British regulars that had ever taken the field; it was re-occupied by Canadian troops which the Germans in 1914 had contemptuously called "Canadian Clodhoppers," but whom they had long since come to fear as the most effective fighting force on the western front.

The population of Mons, augmented by hundreds of civilians from nearby places, joined the mighty outburst of enthusiasm when the Canadian divisional commander handed over the town to the people. Its streets were draped with flags and then came the march of the conclusion of the ceremonies, three cheers were given for King Albert from soldiers and civilians alike.

During the great advance from Douai to Mons the depth of the advances made from day to day may be seen best from the following table, which Sir Arthur Currie includes in this report. It shows the daily advance, in yards, of the corps:

From		To		Yards
October	11	October	12	4,000
“	12	“	17	7,000
“	17	“	18	5,000
“	18	“	19	12,000
“	19	“	20	2,500
“	20	“	21	5,000
“	21	“	22	6,000
“	22	“	23	3,000
“	23	“	24	1,000
“	24	November	1	3,500
November	1	“	2	3,000
“	2	“	3	2,000
“	3	“	4	3,000
“	4	“	5	1,500
“	5	“	6	4,000
“	6	“	7	4,000
“	7	“	8	3,500
“	8	“	9	11,000
“	9	“	10	1,500
“	10	“	11	9,000
	Total			91,500 (about 52 miles)

On November 12th, the day after the armistice was signed, King George sent the following message to the army:

Germany, our most formidable enemy, who planned the war to gain supremacy of the world, full of pride in her armed strength and of contempt for the small British army of that day, has now been forced to acknowledge defeat, I rejoice that in this achievement the British forces, now grown from a small beginning to the finest army in our history, have borne so gallant and distinguished a part. Soldiers of the British Empire: . . . In France and Belgium the prowess of your arms, as great in retreat as in victory, has won the admiration of all—friends and foe—and has now by a happy historic fate enabled you to conclude the campaign by capturing Mons, where your predecessors of 1914 shed the first British blood. Between that date and this you have traversed a long and weary road. Defeat has more than once stared you in the face. Your ranks have been thinned again and again by wounds, sickness and death. But your faith has never faltered; your courage has never failed; your hearts have never known defeat. With your allied comrades you have won the day.

Others of you have fought in more distant fields, in the mountains and plains of Italy, in rugged Balkan ranges, under the burning sun of Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Africa, amid the snows of Russia and Siberia, and by the shores of the Dardanelles.

I pray that God, who has been pleased to grant a victorious end to this great crusade for justice and right, will prosper and bless our efforts in the immediate future to secure for the generations to come the hard-won blessings of freedom and peace.

The following telegram was received on November 12th by his Excellency the Governor-General, from his Majesty the King:

"At the moment when the armistice is signed, bringing, I trust, a final end to the hostilities which have convulsed the whole world for four years, I desire to send a message of greeting and heartfelt gratitude to my overseas peoples, whose wonderful efforts and sacrifices have contributed so largely to secure the victory which is now won. Together we have borne this tremendous burden in the fight for justice and liberty. Together we can now rejoice at the realization of these great aims for which we entered the struggle. The whole empire pledged its word not to sheath the sword until our end was achieved. That pledge is now redeemed. The outbreak of war found the whole empire one. I rejoice to think that the end of the struggle finds the empire still more closely united by the common resolve held firm through all vicissitudes by the community of suffering and sacrifice, by the dangers and triumph shared together. The hour is one of solemn thanksgiving and of gratitude to God, whose divine providence has preserved us through all perils, and crowns our arms with victory. Let us bear our triumph in the same spirit which we have borne our dangers.

(Signed) GEORGE R. I.

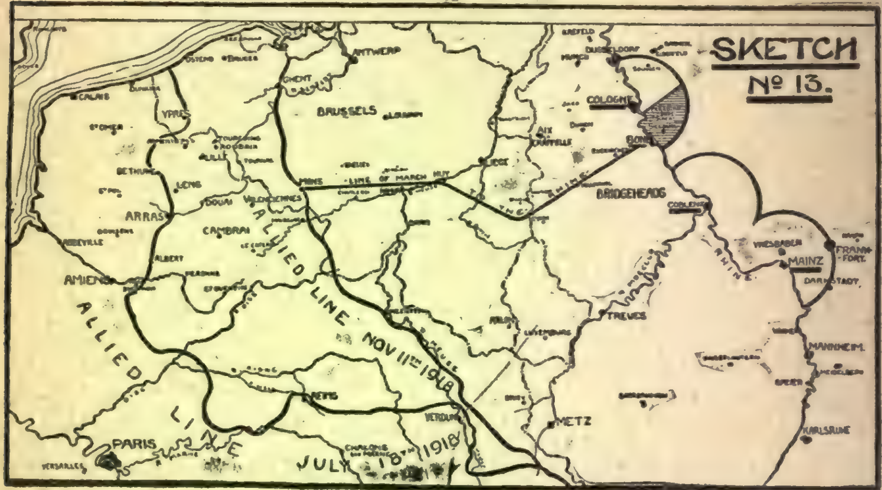
The Canadian troops crossed the German border on December 4th, the First Canadian division at Poteau and another Canadian division further south.

Sir Arthur Currie, commander of the Canadian Corps, who crossed the frontier unofficially the previous day, was accompanied by his staff including Prince Arthur of Connaught who had returned to his duties with the Canadian Corps and the general officer commanding our First division, with his staff.

The Canadian Light Horse furnished an escort and the infantry which was the first to pass the saluting point was the Third battalion of Toronto followed by the First battalion of Western Ontario and the Fourth and Second Canadian batteries. The corps commander, whose fine impressive figure is a rock of elemental strength and power, took the salute exactly on the boundary line. The first men to pass him marched to the tune of the Maple Leaf. It was a wonderful sight, the outward and visible sign of victory, so hardly won after four years of battle.

THE STORY OF THE CANADIAN CAVALRY

The Canadian cavalry brigade was formed in December, 1914, under General Seely, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., under whose command it remained until May 20, 1918, when it came under the command of Brigadier-General Paterson, D.S.O., of the Fort Garry Horse, which had replaced the King Edward Horse in January, 1916.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Nº 13.
ANTWERP
OSTEND
GHENT
CALAIS
YPRES
BRUSSELS
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DOUAI
VALENCIENNES
MONS
LINE OF MARCH
HUY
LIEGE
ARRAS
CAMBRAI
ABBEVILLE
ALBERT
AMIENS
ALLIED LINE NOV 11th 1918
ALLIED LINE JULY 18th 1918
REIMS
VERDUN
PARIS
VERSAILLES
CHALONS
METZ
DUSSELDORF
COLOGNE
AIX LA CHAPELLE
BONN
RHINE
BRIDGEHEADS
COBLENZ
WIESBADEN
MAINZ
FRANKFORT
DARMSTADT
TREVES
MOSELLE
MEUSE
LUXEMBURG
ARLON
MANNHEIM
SPEIER
KARLSRUHE

The Canadian March to the Rhine

"Friday the Thirteenth" was the fatal day in German annals. December 13, 1918, was set as the date on which the Allies would cross the Rhine at all points to be occupied. On the morning of the 13th the Canadian Corps crossed the Rhine at Bonn.

After serving as dismounted troops in the battles of Givenchy, Festubert and in front of Messines, the brigade again became a mounted unit in 1916 preparatory to the Somme offensive. There it took part in the operations south of Albert and in the early part of 1917 during the German retirement to the Hindenburg line.

This was the first fighting in open country for over two years and the taking of the village of Ypres by the Fort Garry Horse marked the capture of the first village by the cavalry on the western front since the first months of the war.

There were also the important engagements at the Bois de

Vallulart, Etricourt Station, Equancourt, Langasvenes, Lieramont, Gyancourt and Saulcourt during March 24th to 27th in which all regiments and the Royal Horse artillery brigade took part with great dash and determination. During these engagements it was discovered that German machine gunners who held out obstinately against infantry surrendered readily to the cavalry, which apparently inspired a considerable amount of fear.

The cavalry brigade again became dismounted troops and occupied part of the trenches near St. Quentin and in May, 1917, carried out some successful raiding operations.

In November the brigade, again mounted, took part in Byng's famous attack on Cambrai. One squadron of the Fort Garry Horse succeeded in crossing the canal by an improvised bridge, before orders countermanding the operation arrived, and galloped forward without support toward the German headquarters east of Cambrai. They succeeded in cutting up a number of German batteries but towards night were almost surrounded and had to cut their way back on foot after stampeding their horses. Later on at Vaucelette Farm Lord Strathcona's Horse drove back the enemy and re-established our line.

During the German offensive of March 21st sent 800 dismounted men into the line at Vermand while the rest of the brigade mounted was attached to the Third cavalry division under Lieutenant-Colonel Paterson. This force re-established our line at Villeselve and were then ordered to take up a new line at Guiscard. From then on this force of Paterson's, working with the French, did excellent work, helping to check German rushes at Mennesis, Bois de Genlis and other points of the British line and at Mesnil St. Georges and Fontaine in support of the French. On March 30th it went into action at Moreuil Wood and succeeded in driving the enemy from that important point which gave direct observation of Amiens. Another good bit of work was carried out by the brigade at Rifle Wood where they succeeded in taking their objective together with 120 prisoners and thirteen machine guns.

Meanwhile the Royal Canadian Horse artillery which had been attached to the Twenty-fourth British division had been fighting a rear-guard action with that division during the whole of the retreat.

For the first time in its career the Canadian cavalry brigade fought with the Canadian Corps in the battle of Amiens. There the Canadian cavalry went into action at 9.15 A. M. along the Amiens-Roye road. It captured Fresnoy and did valuable work throughout the day co-operating with the tanks in clearing a way for the Canadian infantry. On the 9th it captured the village of Andechy for the French and seized the high ground north and west of Roye.

The brigade did not go into action again till October 9th, when it advanced from Maretz and seized the high ground northwest of Le Cateau, patrols pushing forward into Cateau, Montary and Neuvilly-Inchy. Four hundred prisoners, 100 machine guns and several guns were taken on that occasion, while the operations along a three-mile front cleared six villages and swept the enemy from the field. This was the brigade's last action until November 11th, though the cavalrymen were pursuing the enemy east of Ath on that day.

There were three Victoria Crosses and 391 other decorations won by the brigade which itself was mentioned by name in despatches for five different engagements.

TWO REMARKABLE CANADIAN SOLDIERS

It would be an incomplete chapter that did not deal with the men who have been responsible for the success of Canadian arms. It is obviously impossible to mention all or even a few of those responsible, but looking backward one sees two personalities that stand forth from all others: General Sir Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia of Canada for three years, and General Sir Arthur Currie, Commander of the Canadian Corps.

SIR SAM HUGHES

To General Sir Sam Hughes must be given the credit for having foreseen war with Germany, and preparing for it as well as he could under the conditions. He it was of all others who galvanized Canada into activity; he it was whose enthusiasm and driving power were so contagious that they affected not only his subordinates but the country at large. Sir Sam Hughes will be remembered for the building of Valcartier Camp and the despatch of the first Canadian Contingent. But he did other things of just as great importance. It was he who sought for and obtained for Canada

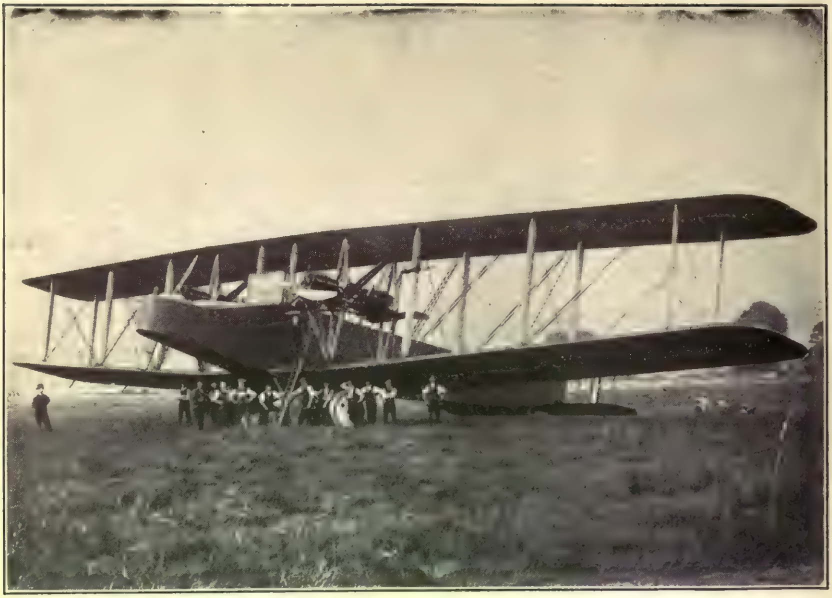
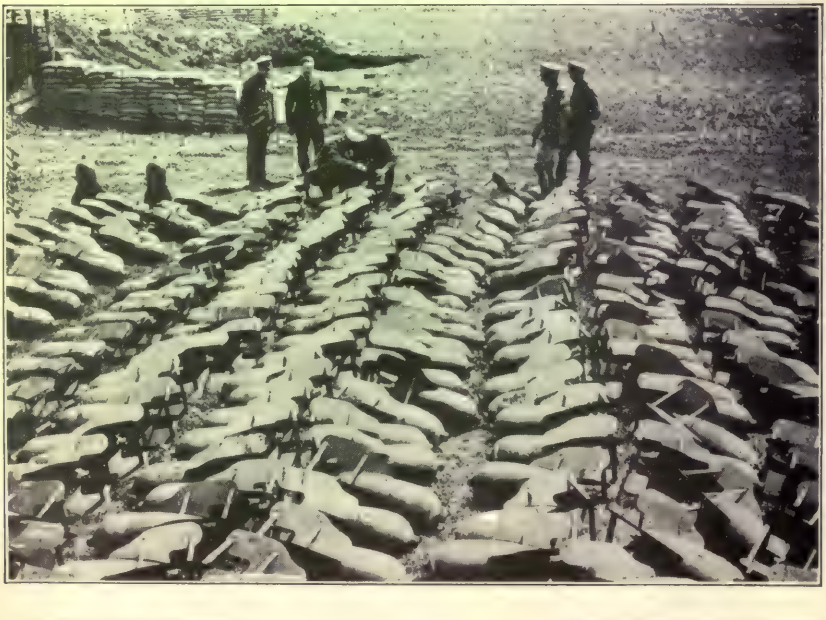


Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

GIANT HANDLEY-PAGE BOMBING PLANE

This huge air dreadnought is capable of carrying forty passengers. This type of plane was designed to attack Berlin and carries a huge load of bombs and is heavily armed. Quantity production had just begun when the war ended.



British Official Photograph. *From Underwood and Underwood.*

ONE NIGHT'S FOOD FOR A BOMBING SQUADRON

This great mass of high explosives is a typical load of one of many Allied squadrons of planes which made nightly raids on German ammunition dumps, railways and concentration points.

huge orders of shells from Great Britain and thereby made it possible for Canada to weather the financial storms, pay her way and emerge in better financial shape than she was when the war began.

It is easy to elaborate and build up a business once established; the great credit must go to the man who establishes it.

Sir Sam Hughes was also responsible for the selection of the officers who went overseas with the First Canadian Contingent. Among those who subsequently became commanders of Canadian divisions were Generals Sir Arthur Currie, Sir Richard Turner, Sir David Watson, General Mercer, Sir H. E. Burstall and General Lipsett. Of these General Sir Arthur Currie, who at first commanded a brigade of the First division, became commander of the Canadian Corps.

SIR ARTHUR CURRIE

General Currie was born at Strathroy in Ontario. Going west he settled down in Victoria, B. C., as a young schoolmaster, from which profession he went into the life insurance business and real estate. In 1897 he joined the Eighth Canadian Garrison artillery as a private and three years later received his commission. His company soon became remarkably efficient and for seven years won the efficiency shield. In 1909 he was the officer commanding the regiment.

In 1913 he resigned his command to raise a Highland infantry regiment—the Gay Gordons. He worked hard and when war broke out it was natural that he should have been given command of a brigade.

In September, 1915, he was given command of the First Canadian division and in 1917 was made commander of the Canadian Corps.

Currie has been one of the finds of the war. A general today to be efficient must have some of the qualities of a business man as well as others. But he must be more. Any officer to have the respect and confidence of his men must be just and fearless. He must, if the occasion demands it, go into the danger spot and show no fear. The German method of keeping their officers safe in a shell-proof dugout is not the practice among British troops. The British soldier likes to see his commanding officer and realize that he too is willing to take all the risks. Of course we have lost many a valuable officer in that way, but many a situation has been saved by the commanding officer taking hold of an apparently hopeless situation and by his inspiring example saving the day.

It was thought at one time that it was impossible for a man not trained in a staff college to become a great soldier. Critics thought at first that perhaps the credit that always came to Currie, no matter what he did, was due to his chief staff officer. But that officer left and was succeeded by another; he in turn passed on but the work of Currie seemed ever to improve. There was nothing left therefore but for the critics to admit that the success of Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie was due to his own ability and no other. His outstanding success, like that of Sir John Monash, a business man and the commander of the Australian corps, showed that a staff college course, though desirable, was not absolutely essential, and that ability, aptitude for the work, resourcefulness, opportunity and actual experience in the field were capable of producing great soldiers.

Largely through the efforts of this big, quiet man, whose consideration, prudence and brilliancy had won the absolute confidence of officers and men, was the success of the Canadian Corps made possible. Always assured that the plans of attack were well matured, and that they would get their full share of artillery support when they went into an attack, men and officers had implicit confidence in their corps commander. As will be seen from the introduction to this book General Currie's thought, like that of all great commanders, was first and always for his men.

And so it came about that the real estate dealer from the Province of British Columbia, by sheer ability, was able to elaborate a fighting force of incomparable effectiveness. Welded by sacrifice and glorious achievements, the Canadians were set the most difficult tasks and, as events proved, not in vain.

CHAPTER X

The Collapse of the Enemy

When the allied forces had failed to make an impression upon the Turkish forces in Gallipoli in August, 1915, by their final attack, it was realized that the effort to force the Dardanelles had definitely failed. The British had lost 113,000 men in killed and wounded while 97,000 more had been admitted to hospital for sickness. Late in October, 1915, General Monro, who had succeeded General Hamilton, recommended that the project be abandoned, an opinion approved of by the allied governments.

The evacuation of Gallipoli was as successful a bit of work of the kind as can be found in military history. The problem was an exceedingly difficult one. Our trenches were only about 300 yards from those of the enemy and the beaches from which the embarkation had to be made were all under the range of Turkish guns. It was, moreover, impossible to embark the whole army at once.

Accordingly it was determined to withdraw the army by degrees, leaving behind battalions to carry on the usual fire and deceive the enemy. The plan worked splendidly. Men, guns and ammunition were withdrawn by night to the beaches and transferred to transports while the garrison kept up an appearance of warfare which completely deceived the Turks. The last troops from Suvla left on December 20, 1915, and by January 8, 1916, the evacuation had been completed. Charges with time fuses attached to the piles of stores and the few guns left for purposes of deception blew up as the last of the picked garrisons pulled away from the scene of one of the great and dramatic allied military failures.

Part of the allied armies from Gallipoli moved to Salonika in front of which they settled down in entrenched positions protected by wire and swamps. There was little action in the Balkan theatre in 1916, though Greece was having an exceedingly difficult time keeping neutral. The Greek king and general staff believed that the Central Powers would win but their hereditary enemy was

Turkey, in alliance with those powers. They were unable to join the Central Powers because of the allied army at Salonika and because the allied fleets could readily bombard and blockade the long Grecian coast line.

The wisest, perhaps, of all European statesmen at the time was Venizelos who had been premier of Greece when the Greek Chamber was illegally dissolved by King Constantine in 1915. Venizelos was a great statesman who had the true interests of Greece at heart. During the previous Balkan wars he had proved himself to be head and shoulders above his contemporaries. He realized better than the Greek nation that their whole interest lay in the success of the allied cause, which he, himself, believed would eventually prove victorious.

The action of Greece in permitting the Bulgarian army to occupy Fort Rupel in Greek territory resulted in a pacific blockade of the Greek coast by the allied fleets. Retaliatory attacks were made on the allied embassies in Athens whereupon the Allies demanded the demobilization of the Greek army, a new election and the punishment of those guilty of the riots. These demands were acceded to, but before the election could take place the Bulgars, in August, 1916, advanced into Greek territory capturing Kavalla, without resistance from the Greek army.

As a result of the action of the Greek army at Kavalla a revolution broke out at Saloniki, and Venizelos, failing to induce King Constantine to act, became head of the Provisional Government of the Revolutionists. No policy could be agreed upon either by Constantine or the Allies, but finally the situation became so unsatisfactory that on June 11, 1917, King Constantine was forced to abdicate. Next day he and his family left Greece for Switzerland. that retreat of many exiles.

Venizelos again became Prime Minister and immediately proceeded to weld Greece together in the cause of the Allies. Among other moves the Greek army was organized with a view to coöperation with the allied armies.

In the month of November, 1917, the Allies had captured Monastir in Serbia, but little other activity of a military nature occurred for another year. Suddenly, in the midst of the wonderful movement by which Foch was beating back the German armies in France, the startling news came of great activity in Macedonia,—

activity that was destined to bring about, in dramatic fashion, the downfall of the Central Powers, and bring to end for all time their great dream of world conquest.

BULGARIA'S SURRENDER

On September 16, 1918, the allied armies, under the French General d'Esperey, attacked the Balkan army with results that were swift, dramatic and vital for the Central Powers.

Advancing from Saloniki the British and Greek armies drove at the enemy's right in the region of Lake Dorian. At the same time French and Serbian troops attacked the Bulgarian centre along a twenty-five mile front while an Italian army struck at the enemy's left. As a result of these blows the first and second Bulgarian armies were separated and fled, leaving the road open to Sofia. The first Bulgarian army was caught between the two allied advances and was threatened with annihilation. Formal appeals to Germany and Austria brought nothing but evasive replies; pacifist crowds in Sofia demanded peace and the country was threatened with anarchy. Consequently King Ferdinand was forced to ask for an armistice. On September 26th a Bulgarian officer arrived at d'Esperey's headquarters to ask for a suspension of hostilities until the accredited representatives, said to be on the way, should arrive. This request was naturally refused, but on September 28th the official Bulgarian delegates arrived at Saloniki and on September 29th an armistice was signed by d'Esperey for the Entente Allies and the three Bulgarian representatives. The terms were submitted to the Allies, were approved and hostilities ceased on September 30th at noon.

The terms of the armistice were very drastic. Bulgaria agreed to evacuate all allied territory, demobilize her army at once, surrender all means of transport to the Allies as well as control of navigation on the Danube, allow the Allies free passage through Bulgaria for military purposes, surrender all arms and ammunition and allow of the occupation of all important strategic points in Bulgaria. The armistice meant a complete military surrender and Bulgaria ceased to be a belligerent.

Bulgarian troops began evacuating Serbia on October 1st and the advancing Serbs had only Austrian and German forces to fight. At the same time large forces of German troops were withdrawn from Rumania and rushed to strategic points in Serbia and Bulgaria for the purpose of holding territory as long as possible.

On October 13th the railway between Berlin and Constantinople was cut and the road to the east finally broken. Meanwhile, on October 4th, King Ferdinand, the Fox, abdicated in favour of his son Boris with the complete approval of the party leaders. The accession of Boris III, a Bulgarian by birth, was received with great enthusiasm by the Bulgarian people. His first decree demobilized the Bulgarian army and shortly afterwards all Germans, Austro-Hungarians and Turks were ordered to leave Bulgaria within a month.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY COLLAPSES

A note addressed by Austria-Hungary to all the Allies on September 15th, inviting them to a conference on neutral territory, showed her anxiety for peace at any price. There was no attempt to take the note seriously by the Allies who realized that internal affairs in the dual monarchy were desperate.

At the end of October the final Italian offensive was made. The Tenth Italian Army including the Britsh forces was under the command of General Lord Cavan. The Eighth and Twelfth Italian armies on the left attacked the Grappe region while Lord Cavan's army crossed the Piave River and speedily secured the eastern bank.

Immediate success was attained by the three Italian armies on the entire front of thirty miles, the enemy breaking before the onward sweep of the Allies. A week after the offensive began 50,000 prisoners had been taken, the Austrians had been chased across the Livenza River toward Tagliamento; and all the strong positions between the Brenta and the Piave were regained.

On October 25th the Hungarian seaport of Fiume was seized by Croatian rebels.

On October 28th Austria-Hungary, in a new note to President Wilson, declared herself ready "without awaiting the result of the other negotiations" to negotiate peace and an immediate armistice on all her fronts. The Emperor issued a manifesto promising a federal state for each race under the monarchy. President Wilson then officially recognized the claims to separate nationality of the Czecho-Slovaks and the Jugo-Slavs, which forthwith formed national executives, for the Czechs at Prague and for the Jugo-Slavs at Agram. The Austrian fleet was handed to the Jugo-Slavs and the Danube fleet to the Czechs.

The Austrian-Hungarian aggregation immediately began to disintegrate. The Austro-German provinces declared themselves an autonomous state; the Ruthenians gathered at Lemberg and the Poles at Cracow. A new Provisional Cabinet was formed at Vienna for the purpose of bringing about a speedy peace, transferring affairs from the central government to the national governments and safeguarding their common interests.

The Austrian defeat had become a rout when, on October 30th, the railway communication between the plains and the mountains was cut. On October 31st General Diaz was appealed to for an armistice, and on November 3d, Austria-Hungary surrendered at the moment when the Twenty-ninth Italian army corps entered Trent and another Italian force had landed at Trieste.

Since October 24th the allied armies in Italy had captured about 300,000 prisoners and 5,000 guns; of these prisoners 20,000 had been taken in two days by Cavan's army.

The terms of the armistice provided for the handing over of the effective part of the Austrian fleet, the demobilization of the army, the occupation by the Allies of the Istrian peninsula, the Trentino and a portion of the Dalmation coast with its hinterland, and the islands. Complete control was also to be yielded over the Austro-Hungarian railways and roads, thereby opening up a new and rapid approach to the south and eastern German border.

TURKEY'S FAILURE

The brilliantly successful campaign in Palestine and Syria, which converged upon Aleppo, ended by the capture of the entire Turkish armies of defence.

The year had opened auspiciously for Turkey. Russia had failed and as a result Turkey had been able to recapture Trebizond, Erzerum, Ardaham, Batum and Kars in rapid succession. They also took Tabriz and endeavored to secure the necessary area of Persia as a base of operations against the British.

All the ambitions of Turkey were countered by the successes of the British in Palestine and Syria, together with Bulgaria's fall. The young Turks and Enver Pasha had steadily declined in power in face of the privations which their policy had brought upon the country.

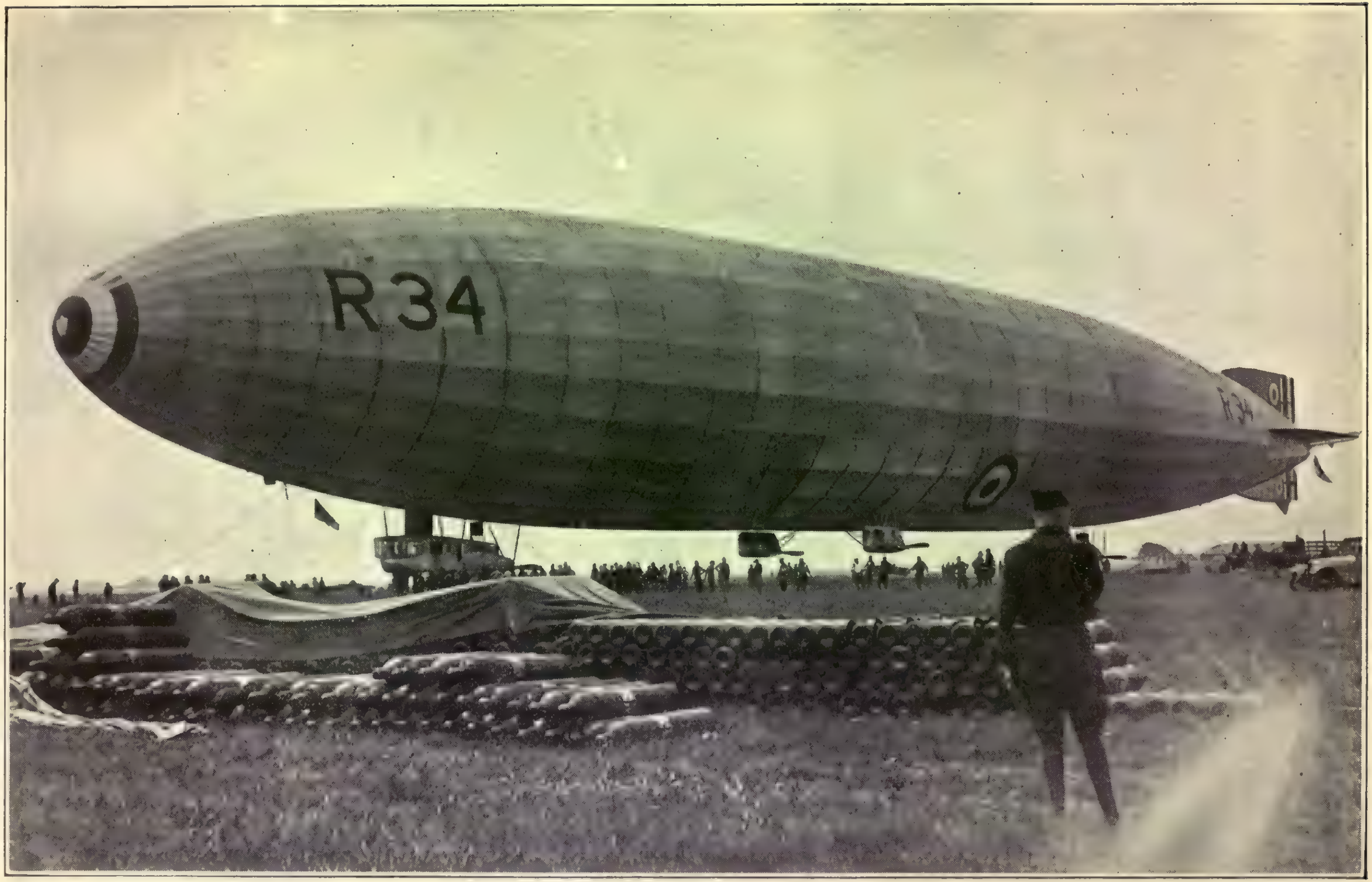
Towards the end of October General Townshend, who had been a prisoner of war since the fall of Kut, was liberated in order to carry the message that Turkey wished to open negotiations for peace and on October 30th the Turkish plenipotentiaries signed an armistice at Mudros.

By the terms of this armistice the allied fleets secured the passage of the Dardanelles and the Bosporus to the Black Sea; the occupation of the Dardanelles forts, the withdrawl of the Turkish armies within Asia Minor and the immediate repatriation of all allied prisoners of war without reciprocity, were other provisions.

In accordance with these terms the allied fleet anchored off Constantinople by November 13th and French and English troops landed at the Turkish capital on November 21st. No particular animosity or even curiosity seemed to be apparent among the Turkish population, but the Germans mixed in the crowds were exceedingly interested in every move of the allied troops.

THE WAR IN MESOPOTAMIA

At the end of April, 1917, Sir Stanley Maude had driven back the two Turkish army corps and had secured Bagdad. The Russian defection had affected the situation and it was thought that Falkenhayn would endeavor in the autumn to recapture Bagdad. During the summer heat Maude's army rested but with the cooler weather he began operations and on September 20th, by a fine bit of work, surrounded and captured Ramadi, together with 3,454 Turks and thirteen guns. On October 20th he occupied Kizil Robat forcing the Thirteenth Turkish corps to retreat and clearing the British flanks for a fresh advance up the Tigris. On November 5th he routed the Eighteenth Turkish corps and next day occupied Tekrit. Maude was now only 100 miles from Mosul in a much better position to carry on his work. He had taken the army in Mesopotamia at a time when it had been almost ruined by mismanagement and failure and had evolved a highly efficient organized force out of it. His victories of Kut and Bagdad were brilliant achievements seldom equalled in the history of British arms. But he was not destined to receive his full reward, for on November 18th he died suddenly of cholera.



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THE GREAT BRITISH AIRSHIP R 34

Built for war purposes, this mammoth dirigible could easily have bombed Berlin. It was the first lighter-than-air vessel to cross the Atlantic.

He was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Sir W. Marshall. During December and January the Turks near Hit, after being re-enforced, were attacked and routed with the loss of 5,236 men and twelve guns. The magnificent victory of General Allenby in Palestine now permitted of a plan dear to the heart of many people who knew of the wonderful fertility of that region in bygone ages. Accordingly the Euphrates district was garrisoned in order to encourage the development of agriculture. Hundreds of tons of seed grain were planted and arrangements made to open up a branch railroad to bring the harvest into Bagdad, while irrigation methods were introduced. The lines of communication along the Tigris and Euphrates were kept open and traffic encouraged, while the port of Basra was improved, docks built and dredging carried out that would enable ocean vessels to dock.

In the first week of April the British had advanced to within 250 miles of Aleppo and at the end of April the advance was resumed up the Mosul road, Kifri being entered on April 27th. Simultaneously the British had progressed along the direct road from Bagdad which follows the line of the Tigris River to Mosul. The next advance here was not made until October by which time General Marshall had pushed on the construction of the railway line north of Tekrit.

On October 20th British columns operating on both sides of the Tigris River drove back Turkish forces upon our own cavalry. After a six days' fight fifty miles south of Mosul, which ended on October 30th, General Marshall captured the entire Turkish force of 7,000 men.

CONQUEST OF THE HOLY LAND

With impressive simplicity, Lieutenant-General Sir Edmund Allenby, on December 11, 1917, entered on foot the sacred city of Jerusalem. A proclamation establishing martial law in the city made it known that every sacred building would be protected and maintained.

Between October 31st and December 9th Allenby had taken 12,000 prisoners, 100 guns and much material.

The British General then proceeded to protect the line now covering Joppa and Jerusalem and it was gradually pushed forward at both ends. The Turks by counter-attacking, tried without success to break into the allied positions and the British steadily advanced until in early January they were thirteen miles on their way to Shechem.

A big drive eastward on February 19th carried the British forward on a fifteen-mile front to the edge of the Jordan Valley, in spite of obstinate Turkish resistance. On February 21st Australian cavalry entered Jericho and patrols pushed down to the shore of the Dead Sea and Mandesi ford, ten miles from the mouth of the Jordan.

Again turning his attention to the north General Allenby, on March 4th, struck on a front of eighteen miles across the Shechem road and made progress along the coast and foothills overlooking the plain of Sharon. Towards the end of March an attack was made across the Jordan, Es Salt was captured and several miles of the Hedjaz railway were destroyed.

The Turks then assumed the offensive northeast of Joppa but were driven back. The Arabs continued to harass the Turks along the Hedjaz line. Since the declaration of their independence the Arabs of the Hedjaz had cleared the Red Sea coast for 800 miles of the enemy and accounted for 40,000 Turkish troops. Es Salt was again taken by the British and abandoned for the second time.

There now came a lull in the fighting in Palestine. Direct railway connection was made between Cairo and Palestine upon the completion of the swing bridge over the Suez Canal and preparations were made to set up a civil administration in the occupied territory. Some attempts were made by the enemy to regain the crossings of the Jordan and Jericho but failed and the fighting line became stabilized from Arsuf on the coast ten miles north of Joppa, through Mt. Ephraim, across the trunk road between Shechem and Jerusalem, along the Wadi di Auja to the Jordan crossing and then along its banks to the Dead Sea.

On September 18th British troops in Palestine under General Allenby attacked the Turkish position on a front of ten miles, from Rafat to the sea. Since the month of April Allenby had been held up on a sixty-mile front from the edge of the Plain of Sharon on the sea, southwest to the River Jordan. On his front were the seventh and eighth, and on his right the fourth, Turkish armies. The total strength of the Turks was estimated to be between 100,000 and 150,000 bayonets.

General Allenby scored a brilliant series of successes. Breaking through the Turkish lines near the sea he poured his cavalry and camel corps through the breach and began an encirclement of the seventh and eighth Turkish armies. The initial successes were obtained on the historic field of Esdraelon or Jezreel where the Israelites fought battles as recounted in the Bible. The region is famous as the battlefield of Armageddon, and, according to Revelation, is to be the scene of the decisive battle at the end of the world.

The cavalry, consisting of British yeomanry, Australian light horse and Indian cavalry, proceeded north along the western edge of the Mount Ephraim range, turned east toward the Jordan and thus placed itself in the rear of the two Turkish armies by occupying the valley between El Afule and Nazareth. The circle was completed on October 22d and King Hussein had also destroyed the railway communications of the fourth army, thereby preventing its retreat.

Damascus, the capital of Syria and the most beautiful city in Asia Minor, was taken October 1st by the British and Arabs; a week later they had occupied towns thirty miles northwest of Damascus and on the same day a French naval division entered Beirut port, 160 miles northwest of Damascus. This gave the Allies an unbroken front from Beirut to the desert and they pushed on rapidly towards Aleppo, the main base of the Turkish armies in Asia Minor.

British forces along the Tigris and Euphrates also began a forward movement towards Mosul to connect up with Allenby and thus form an unbroken front from the Mediterranean across Mesopotamia into Persia. Between September 18th and October 5th Allenby had captured 71,000 prisoners and 350 guns while the Arabs had taken 8,000 prisoners in addition. The three Turkish armies had practically been destroyed.

Mr. W. T. Massey, official correspondent with the British troops, in a despatch dated September 23d, describes the havoc wrought upon one enemy column:

"Today saw one of the most remarkable sights which a soldier ever gazed upon. From Balata, where the road from Nabulus falls through craggy hills and narrow passes to Wadi Farah, there is a stretch more than six miles long covered with débris of the retreating army. In no section of Napoleon's retreat from Moscow could there have been a more terrible picture of hopeless, irretrievable defeat.

"In this area alone were eighty-seven guns of various calibres, fully 1,000 horse and oxen drawn vehicles, nearly 100 motor lorries, cars, field kitchens, watercarts, and a mass of other impedimenta. The road was black with the carcasses of thousands of animals and bodies of dead Turks and Germans.

"This was the work of the Irish, Welsh and Indian infantry. The artillery pressure behind the indomitable British and Australian airmen in front of the infantry had forced the enemy over the hills into the road, and just as the guns began to shell the retiring transport airmen swooped down to 200 feet and bombed the head of the column. Once that was accomplished, time only was required to finish the job, and this was done with surprising thoroughness.

"The enemy troops, seeing escape with the vehicles was impossible, fled to the hills. Some who had endeavored to find an outlet up the Beisan road fell into the hands of cavalry waiting for them. Others, accepting the inevitable, sought refuge in our lines.

"For effectiveness of systematic bombing it is difficult to find a parallel to this destroyed column. The operations working up to this débâcle were magnificently conducted."

It has been said that the operation as carried out by Allenby, originally in charge of the cavalry corps in French's contemptibles, and with great infantry experience on the western front, was as perfect an example of the coöperation of infantry and cavalry as can be found in history.

Since the Dardanelles campaign the British army, with its Arab allies, had encountered thirty-four Turkish divisions in Palestine of which, by October, twenty-six had ceased to exist. Seventy-five thousand prisoners had been taken by Allenby and the Turks had been driven from half of Syria and were threatened with the loss of Aleppo. Their broken army was estimated to number only 12,000 and it never offered to fight again.

On the advance of the allied force this remnant of the Turkish army withdrew behind Aleppo which was entered by the British on October 26th. Five days later Turkey had capitulated and Alexandretta, the last port of Syria, was occupied on November 10th by the Allies.

CHAPTER XI

With the Canadian Airmen

The year 1918 was memorable as the first year in which aircraft were used as a separate arm of the service. By the fusion of the Royal Naval Air Service and the Royal Flying Corps the Royal Air Force was established. When the Germans were re-enforced in 1918 by troops from the eastern theatre and pressed back the allied lines, the part played by aircraft was remarkable. The preparations for any offensive are most intricate and when time is a vital factor in obtaining a decision any action which hampers or postpones that offensive is of extreme importance.

By persistent offensive tactics against lines of communication, depots, troops and railways, with bombs and machine guns, and by incessant vigilance in aerial reconnaissance the enemy was forced to confine all his important movements of troops to night and much time was thereby gained for us.

Through aircraft observation, "in one day 127 hostile batteries were successfully engaged to destruction; and on the same day twenty-eight gun pits were destroyed, eighty damaged and sixty explosions of ammunition caused." During the autumn victories of the Allies the value of aircraft became even more marked and all previous doings were surpassed. In one day sixty-four enemy machines were destroyed and others driven down.

FUNCTION OF AIRCRAFT

Besides the regular operations of aircraft such as artillery observation, reconnaissance, co-operation with infantry in attack, bombing, submarine hunting and observation for the navy new functions were continually being found for this newly developed branch of the service. In particular there was a far greater co-operation between infantry and aircraft. The first mention made of attempts to relieve a beleaguered garrison from the air was in the case of General Townshend's army when aircraft dropped tobacco and small quantities of other material into the British camp. During the German rush which cut off French troops fighting on Kemmel Hill, airplanes dropped packages of small arm ammunition on the isolated area, thereby enabling the garrison to continue its good work.

German airplanes also carried food and ammunition to isolated units in the Marne and Aisne areas and this became the regular practice with all belligerents during big movements.

Airplanes almost from the beginning of the war were used for carrying spies to and from enemy territory. On October 3d airplanes dropped smoke bombs which made a smoke screen for our advancing troops. For the rapid transportation of officials airplanes were greatly used in the war.

Airmen soon after their instruction began were classified according to their capabilities, for it was quickly recognized that fighting, long-distance bombing, raids, artillery observation, infantry co-operation and reconnaissance required special qualifications. The quickness of eye and instinct, so essential to the first-class air fighter, are not those which are necessary for the good long-distance bomber.

AIRCRAFT AND INFANTRY

Aircraft, co-operating with infantry, tanks and cavalry during advance and retirement, became an established phase of army tactics for which special training was necessary and specially designed machines usually employed. Under such conditions vast numbers of low-flying machines harassed the enemy with bombs and machine-gun fire, while other types of machine, by aerial observation and "contact" work, kept up connection between units and prevented confusion. In the Cambrai fighting of November, 1917, for example, our machines flew as low as fifty feet and swept the streets with machine-gun fire. In that battle the German infantry was helped by "hordes of their airplanes."

In another case, in March, 1918, two German divisions were completely broken up by one hundred French airplanes. In June, 1918, the enemy employed this method with great boldness and in the later fighting of the year there was unprecedented activity in this kind of airplane work.

In the Turkish retreat the Mesopotamia airplanes co-operated effectively with our infantry and inflicted heavy losses, and on

March 9th to 10th the participation of aircraft was a feature of the advance in Palestine. In the autumn victories in Palestine and Serbia aircraft co-operated with tanks and infantry with great effect.

AIR FIGHTING

This phase of work speedily became a special branch, for which obviously suitable pupils were trained. The type of machine used for the purpose rapidly improved and became specialized. Single-seater scouts carried two and often four machine guns. There was also a two-seater fighting machine which acted as escort for this craft.

During the year July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1918, 2,150 enemy planes were destroyed by the British on the western front and another 1,083 were driven down out of control. During the same period R. A. F. units working with the navy accounted for 628 enemy planes. British machines missing amounted to 1,186.

From March 21 to August 15, 1918, the French lost 348 planes and destroyed or drove down out of control 1,325 enemy machines and 147 enemy balloons. In August and September 1,962 enemy planes and 489 allied planes were brought down in all the theatres of war. From June 1st to November 8th on the western front alone 1,837 enemy machines were destroyed by British airmen.

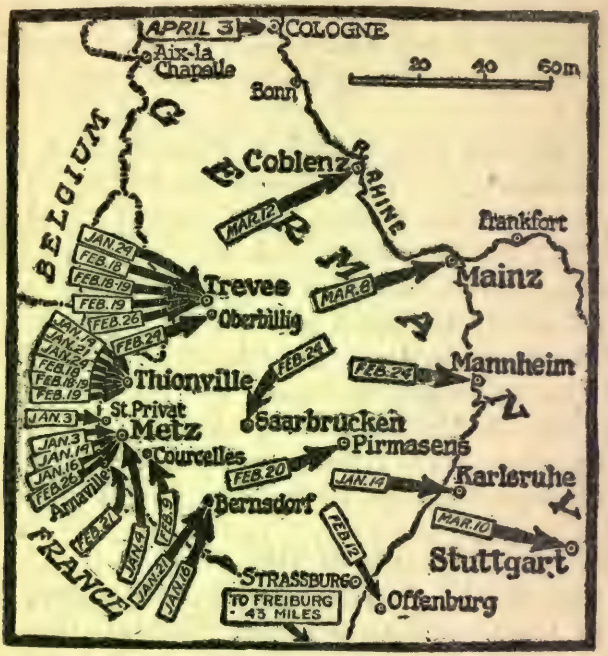
RAIDS BY THE ALLIES

The most striking development occurred in airplane offensive work. The bombing of areas behind the battle line steadily increased in intensity and it was commonly said that except during infantry attacks the safest part of the front was the front line trench.

In 1918 the Allies achieved a definite preponderance in aircraft so that machines could be spared for long-distance work. For the purpose of carrying out the idea of air work as a thing apart, a division of the Royal Air Force called the Independent Air Force was formed and this force occupied itself with long-distance operations against numerous manufacturing centres on the Rhine. By such means a district of the Rhine Valley some 250 miles long, crowded with war industries and intersected by a railway system of vital strategic importance to the German army, was brought into the war zone.

It is interesting to note that up to July, 1918, the enemy had been able to make only 114 raids on England, whereas in the month of July alone the British made 96 raids on Germany. Our raids into Germany all had military objectives and were not of the nature of reprisals. From June 1st to November 8th the British made 287 raids on German towns dropping 536 tons of bombs.

The bombing of aerodromes, enemy communications and troops on the western front was on a gigantic scale. In the week June 27th to July 3d the British dropped 219 tons of bombs exclusive of raids and naval operations. During the two weeks ending August 23d the British alone dropped 594 tons of bombs in the battle area. From March 21st to May 21st the British dropped 2,000 tons of bombs. In April the enemy dropped 2,033 bombs in France; the British dropped 23,900. Vigorous offensives from the air were carried on against Zeebrugge, Ostend, Bruges and aerodromes and works in Belgium, as many as one hundred airplanes participating in a single bombing raid.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Saarbrücken
Mannheim
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Courcelles
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Bernsdorf
MAR.10
FEB.21
JAN.4
FEB.9
JAN.21
JAN.16
FEB.12
Stuttgart
FRANCE
STRASSBURG
TO FREIBURG 43 MILES
Offenburg

How Britons Answered the German Air Raids
This map shows the towns bombed from the air by British aviators in reprisal for German air raids on open towns.

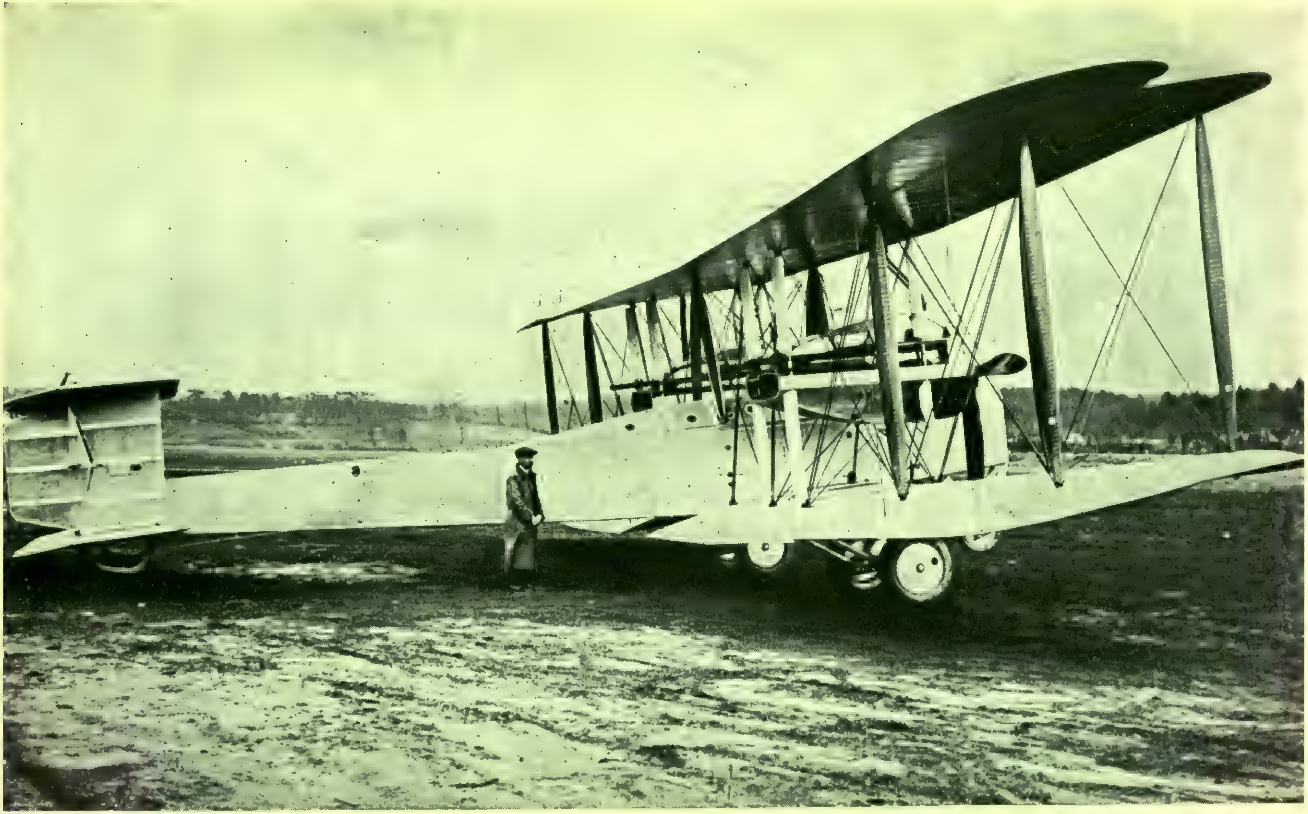


Photo by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

BRITISH BOMBING PLANE THAT CROSSED THE ATLANTIC

The war led to a marvelous development of aeronautics. This is a photo of the famous British Vickers-Vimy-Rolls bomber, in which Captain Alcock and Lieut. Brown made the first non-stop flight across the Atlantic on June 15, 1919.

GERMAN RAIDS

In addition to the German raids referred to in Chapter XIX on England the Germans maintained a steady airplane offensive against our depots, communications and aerodromes on the western front. From May 15th to June 1st our hospitals also on the northern coast of France were bombed under circumstances that left no doubt that the attacks were deliberate. In these hospital raids 248 were killed and 593 wounded.

AIRPLANE DEVELOPMENT

Four years of war probably developed the airplane more than twenty-five or thirty years of peace would have done. The tremendous competition to beat each other resulted in the concentration of much of the best brains and the finest engineering skill of both belligerents in developing better engines, models, stability and control. It was quickly discovered that a general purpose machine was of little use because it was an easy prey to the faster fighting machine. Definite types for special kind of work were therefore evolved and elaborated along their own special lines. When the armistice was signed the latest development in the bombing plane, a Handley-Page British machine, was almost ready to bomb Berlin. This huge biplane, eighty feet in width and equipped with several engines, would have been ready in another two days to fly over the German capital. It was capable of carrying three tons of bombs and actually carried forty passengers in its trial flight on November 15th. That was an experience that Berlin probably had few regrets about missing.

There seems to be no limit either to the carrying capacity, range of flight, altitude or speed of the airplane. Single-seater scouts have exceeded a speed of 150 miles an hour.

It is less dangerous to fly machines today than it was in the beginning because all modern airplanes are far more stable than the original machines were. The airman of the latter days of the war required to be far better qualified than his early predecessor. He had to understand wireless telegraphy, gunnery and bomb dropping, to operate two or more engines, and learn the difficult art of formation flying. He had to thoroughly understand the numerous instruments on his machine in order to navigate during all weathers, at great heights and over long distances.

AIRCRAFT AT SEA

At the end of the war aircraft were taking almost as great a part in sea warfare as they were in land warfare and very little was done at sea without effective aerial observation. When it is realized that the first use of seaplanes for observation work among the British occurred during the battle of Jutland, one can see what rapid progress had been made.

A considerable amount of fighting between aircraft and marine craft occurred, while freedom for aerial reconnaissance over the seas was keenly contested by the rival air forces.

In controlling the enemy's submarine activities aircraft proved to be most valuable. Airships, airplanes, sea planes and observation balloons working from the decks of warships were employed in large numbers. The actual destruction of enemy submarines has been brought about many times through bombs dropped from aircraft.

THE COMPOSITION AND CONTROL OF THE AIR SERVICE

In early 1918 the Air Council in England was appointed to supersede the Air Board. The Air Ministry supplied to the Admiralty and to the War Office contingents of the Royal Air Force which came into existence on April 1, 1918, under Lord Rothermere. These contingents were then under the supreme military or naval command. The Independent Air Force operated directly under the Air Ministry.

The production of airplanes was under the Minister of Munitions. Lighter-than-air craft remained under the Admiralty, the Air Ministry supplying the necessary personnel for the Royal Air Force.

When the armistice was signed on November 11th King George sent the following message to Lord Weir, Secretary of State and President of the Air Council:

> To the Right Hon. Lord Weir, Secretary of State and President of the Air Council.
>
> In this supreme hour of victory I send greetings and heartfelt congratulations to all ranks of the Royal Air Force. Our aircraft have been ever in the forefront of the battle; pilots and observers have consistently maintained the offensive throughout the ever-changing fortunes of the day; and in the war zones our gallant dead have lain always beyond the enemies' lines or far out to sea.

Our far-flung squadrons have flown over home waters and foreign seas, the western and Italian battle lines, Rhineland, the mountains of Macedonia, Gallipoli, Palestine, the plains of Mesopotamia, the forests and swamps of East Africa, the northwest frontier of India, and the deserts of Arabia, Sinai and Darfur.

The birth of the Royal Air Force, with its wonderful expansion and development, will ever remain one of the most remarkable achievements of the great war.

Everywhere, by God's help, officers, men and women of the Royal Air Force have splendidly maintained our just cause, and the value of their assistance to the navy, the army, and to home defence has been incalculable. For all their magnificent work, self-sacrifice, and devotion to duty, I ask you on behalf of the empire to thank them.

George R. I.

CANADIANS AND THE ROYAL AIR FORCE

Canadians took to flying with great enthusiasm and large numbers joined the Royal Flying Corps and Royal Naval Flying Corps. In August, 1918, after much discussion, the Royal Canadian Air Service came into being under the Director of the Naval Department. Provision for training had already been made on a very large scale in Canada and when America came into the war our aerodromes and training facilities were placed at her disposal. Practically all of the instruction given American fliers, during the first year of the war particularly, was by Canadian fliers who had returned from overseas.

Canadians made wonderful fighters, and the majority of the greatest fighters in the R. A. F. were Canadians. The premier British ace has finally been decided to be Major Mannock of India, with a record of seventy-four planes to his credit, a record that was only one better than Lieutenant-Colonel Bishop, V.C., the Canadian, who brought down seventy-three planes.

The R. F. C. and later the R. A. F. in Canada was under the command of Brigadier-General Hoare, C.M.G., who had before the war been a cavalry officer in India. Since the appearance of the force 6,000 air mechanics, 5,000 cadets and 800 officers were trained under his command and 4,300 trained pilots were sent overseas for service. Approximately 13,000 Canadians joined the R. A. F. and its predecessor the R. F. C.

In 1919 General Seely, the British Air Minister, asked for $325,000,000 for the Air Ministry and a vote for 150,000 airmen.

The House of Commons gave it to him without question. In his speech in connection with this vote General Seely said: "It is in a large measure due to the splendid quality of the man-power of the empire, of which Canada supplied so large a proportion, that Britain became master of the air, and has raised her air-power to a higher pitch than any of our Allies." General Seely added: "Our record is 50,000 air battles during the war." The general added some interesting facts hitherto unknown to the general public. Among others was the fact that the wireless telephone had been invented and installed on airplanes; that a new seaplane capable of carrying 14,000 pounds and flying one hundred miles an hour had been perfected; that an airplane capable of lifting 20,000 pounds was under course of construction; that a new plane with a speed undreamed of was being built, and that a new air camera had been invented.

General Seely laid great stress on the future use of seaplanes for use along great river stretches such as the Nile, the St. Lawrence and other great water routes over which ordinary ships can travel at a very few miles an hour.

AIR SHIPS

During the war little was heard about British airships. When war broke out Great Britain had exactly two airships ready for service, and these began at once to patrol the channel, looking for hostile warships, blockade runners, mines and other nuisances. When the war ended there were 103 British airships in commission.

The total flying hours made by British airships during the war are of interest:

1915	339	hours
1916	7,678	"
1917	22,389	"
1918 (to October)	53,534	"

The British airships ranged from the submarine scout, or S. S., a small, one-engined, non-rigid type, up to the huge rigid type nearly 600 feet long. Between these two extremes were S. S. twins, Coastals, Coastal Stars, Parsevals and North Seas. The last called the N. S. was a particularly strong, weather-worthy type designed to scout for the fleet and to carry a crew of ten for a twenty-four-hour trip. An N. S. holds the record for the longest flight, having remained in the air sixty-one hours. All of these types helped to guard convoys, looked for U-boats, kept the enemy from seeing what our ships were doing and patrolled the British coast lines.

At the time of writing, the British dirigible, R-34, has made the pioneer balloon voyage across the Atlantic, covering 3,200 miles from East Fortune, Scotland, to Mineola, New York, in 108 hours. The R-34 is 670 feet long; capacity of gas bag, 2,200,000 cubic feet. She carries a crew of thirty. The R-34 and a sister ship were built originally to bomb Berlin. Other British airships twice as long, with a range of 20,000 miles, capable of travelling at a speed of fifty-one miles an hour, are said to be on the way.

CHAPTER XII

Britain's Effort History's Marvel

When Prussia—and her dupes—went to war it was in the same spirit of ruthless conquest that has characterized her since the days of Attila. As then the Huns swept aside everything that lay in their path; neutrals were invaded, innocent men, women and children butchered, cities laid in ashes, sacred agreements torn to pieces. It is true that the German nation had become efficient in material things; the soul of Prussia had changed little in a thousand years. A veneer of mental culture had overlaid and deceived the world as to the heart of the Prussian people, which, as events have shown, is just as savage as it ever was.

The Prussian is a realist; little of great worth springing in the realm of the imagination either in music, art or literature has come from the Prussian people. The Prussian calls pork pig flesh, a term that is repulsive to the Anglo-Saxon, but the Prussian believes in calling things what they are. A bully by instinct and nature he elbows women off the sidewalk and precedes them in getting on a street car. He is the superior being; then why not show it?

Not seeing below the surface or believing in such things as sentiment, he eliminated this from his mind as something which did not exist. The British Lion he regarded as a mere moneybag and a whelp of the seas. The Prussian could calculate the wealth of Britain in gold; he could estimate the number of her men and guns. But outside of her wealth and her navy he held Great Britain to be of no account. There was no way of calculating the soul of a nation and the Prussian could not know that the greatest wealth of Great Britain was after all in her national spirit.

When Germany went to war she could not and did not believe that Britain would enter the arena, for the sake of a mere signature. When she learned that the British people believed in keeping their pledges given to Belgium her rage knew no bounds. The hate and jealousy of the British Empire vented itself in an outburst of national rage such as the world had never seen. The whole nation and the army worked themselves into a frenzy in and out of season by singing Lissauer's "Hymn of Hate," whose refrain is "Gott strafe England."

This hatred of England turned to an equally virulent hatred of the United States when, after bearing for two and a half years the insults and threats of the Prussian autocracy, that nation also took up arms to defend her honour.

It was therefore an astounding thing for Germany to witness the rallying of the British Colonies to the side of "the ice-cold haberdashers of the Thames." Instead of falling away and declaring their individual freedom the extraordinary sight was witnessed of these same colonies pouring out their treasures and offering their sons by the tens of thousands for the sake of sentiment,—because of an idea. India, Canada, Australia, New Zealand hastened to support the mother country and during more than four long years continued with unswerving fidelity to tax themselves more billions and sacrifice further tens of thousands of sons in order that all which Germany stood for should be driven from the earth. It was the unconquerable spirit of men with British ideals and French ideals that made conquest by such a nation as Germany impossible. If might was right the Allies were prepared to go down forever in opposing such a hateful belief.

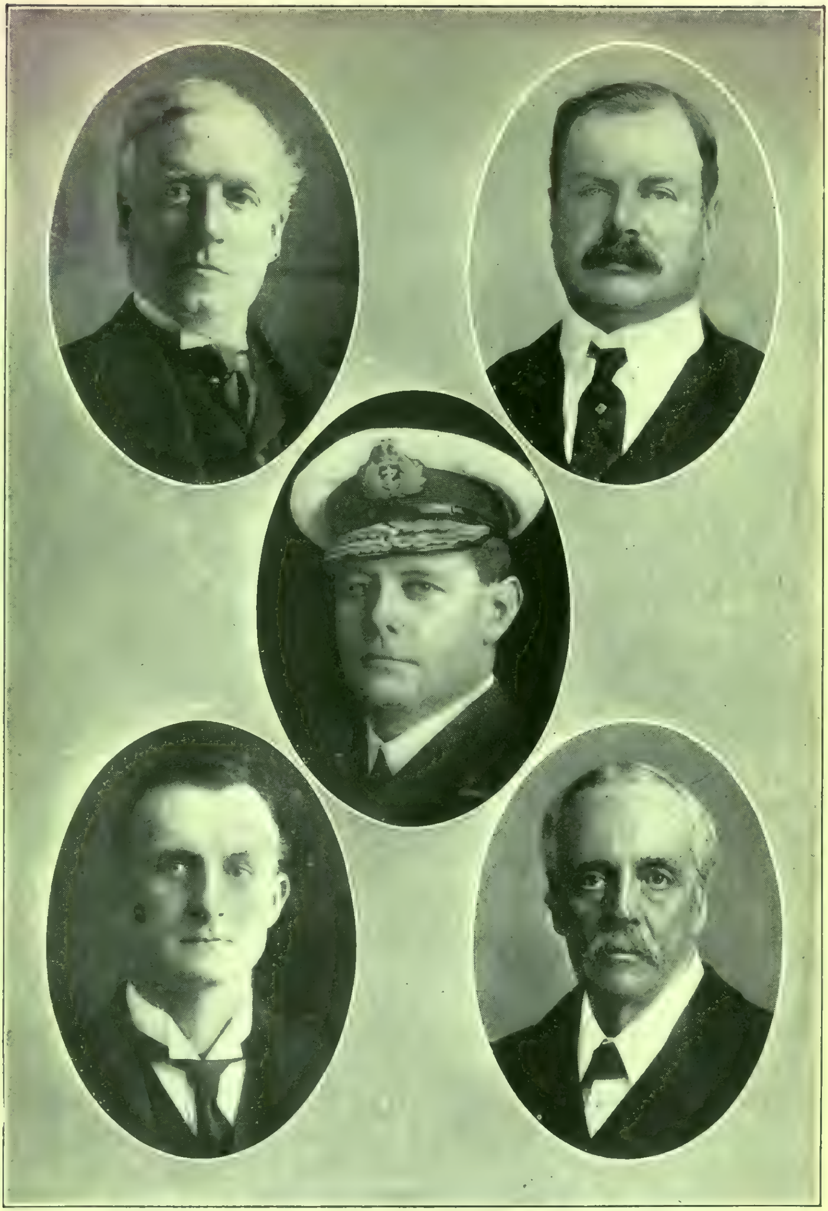
One of the most eloquent tributes to the part Great Britain was playing in the war appeared two and a half years after the beginning of hostilities in the *Boston News Bureau* and *Wall Street Journal*. It said:

"All the wonders of the world, ancient or modern, fade when compared with what Britain is doing to-day. A commercial nation of not 50,000,000 people suddenly summoned to arms where no arms existed has produced a bigger army than history ever before recorded, and a war machine in Europe that for wealth of shell, explosive and war power is the amazement of the Germans. Britain has done in thirty months what Germany took thirty years to do, and she has done it more thoroughly and on a vaster scale. Without an English aeroplane engine capable of circling her own islands she has vanquished the boasted Zeppelin and is the mistress of her own skies. With submarines by the hundred threatening her coast defences and her food supply she has swept all oceans, bottling the German fleet, with the exception of an odd raider like the *Moewe* and the vessel that is now preying upon merchantmen in the South Atlantic. She has made the English Channel her multiple-track ocean railway to France, with no loss by Zeppelin or submarine; fought in Africa, at the Canal, the Dardanelles; grappled with the Turk and the Bulgar; changed generals and admirals in command; changed cabinets; fed the armies of France; maintained the armies and the governments of Belgium and Serbia, and altogether advanced three thousand millions of dollars, or three times the national debt of the United States, to her war allies.

"This is admittedly some considerable achievement. While the United States has been trying to find out how to make military rifles in quantities and has unfilled orders for them amounting to hundreds of millions of dollars, England has been making rifles by the million for herself and her allies, cannon by the thousand, boots and coats by the million for herself and her allies, and most wonderful of all, she has done all this, is doing it and is prepared to go on doing it while her manufacturing, her trade relations and her overseas commerce remain unimpaired. She has grabbed the trade of the world, so that her enemies are struggling on half rations with food, rubber and metal supplies cut off from the outside world except as new territory is taken. This combination of war and trade achievement by Great Britain was never before dreamed of. Two years ago nobody imagined that the war cost to Great Britain would be more than five or six billions; to-day it is twice that amount and Great Britain is preparing to double it again.

"Each achievement seems to be the supreme marvel until the next one is considered, but the greatest wealth of Britain after all was in her national spirit."

Speaking of that soul which has been waked by the war: "It is fighting mad to-day and getting madder every minute. The stigma and insults to credit and honour from Washington only increase the resolve of her people and their faith in the invincibility of the righteous cause. For this they are willing to pledge everything in sacrifice for justice upon the altar of their battle fires. To what martyred souls runs back this heritage of noble spirit only the historians of the future may attempt to answer. It is this



FAMOUS BRITISH STATESMEN

H. H. Asquith
Former Prime Minister

Earl of Derby
Ambassador to France

Sir Eric Geddes
First Lord of the Admiralty

Earl Grey
Former Foreign Secretary

Arthur J. Balfour
Foreign Secretary

spirit which is the deadliest enemy that Germany has to reckon with to-day.

"But with the spirit and with the wealth that has staggered the world something yet remains, if an explanation of Britain's tremendous output of war munitions is to be given. Twenty-five years ago the machinery of England stamped the coinage of many nations and made the cannons for many others. She was the ordnance maker of the world. Then Germany loomed as her rival, and by means of Government bounties, cheaper labor and English free trade she finally put many an English firm out of business, and only in the manufacture of her great naval guns did England retain her old supremacy. But the foundations of the trade and the old factories in this business had not wholly disappeared when the war storm burst, and it was upon these almost forgotten foundations that British spirit and British wealth reared anew her old metal industries and transformed them into munition plants. This is not," as the writer says, "a fight between armies; it is a struggle between nations, and in England every man, woman and child is devoted to only one object, the winning of the war."

The writer calls attention to the fact that "this is not merely a struggle between the finance, the metal and the soldiers of two rival groups. It is also a struggle for economic existence in order that the fighting forces may be increased. Germany was the first of the belligerents to realize that war power might be increased by cutting out luxuries; but England has grasped the fact and she is prepared to go as far as Germany or even farther in denying herself anything whose consumption might delay the end of the war. The British people are organizing in clothing, food, drink, the discarding of unnecessary comforts, increase in the hours of labor and the mutual burdens of all forms of taxation. And the nation will be better for it after the war. As Lloyd George said, the nation has been in training. Whatever the war debt of the Empire is when the fight is over, it will be easily dealt with by people who have learned the lessons that the English people are learning and who will not forget the lessons;" yet the writer quoted says that "while the world is coming into a new civilization, the people in the United States appear to have little comprehension of the issues and the economic results that must inevitably flow therefrom."

The part that Canada played in the support of the Mother

Country during the war has been given elsewhere at length. India's share has also been given in some detail. The great self-governing Commonwealths of Australia, New Zealand and South Africa have played an equally fine part. The universal colonial participation in the war is evidence that the colonies believed in the justice of the British cause.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

The Australians and New Zealanders would not have travelled fourteen thousand miles, or the men from Southwest Africa crossed ten thousand miles over the sea to fight in Europe if they had not, like the men from Canada, been convinced that Britain was right. The colonials rushed to arms because the complete independence which they enjoyed within the British Empire was just as much threatened by Germany as the liberties of England, Ireland, Scotland or Wales.

Australia's population is less than that of New York City, yet 426,000 Australian soldiers enlisted, every one of them volunteers.

About 54,000 Australians were killed in action and 140,000 wounded.

The total war bill of Australia was one billion one hundred million dollars.

The five million inhabitants of Australia paid for and maintained five divisions in France during the last two years of the war, as well as one cavalry division in Egypt and Palestine. The personnel of the Australian navy exceeds nine thousand officers and men—the navy that early in the war hunted down and destroyed the famous German raider *Emden.*

The Australians have their own independent army organization—hospitals, medical service, aviation branch and training camps. Their corps in France commanded by a Melbourne business man, General Sir John Monash, greatly distinguished itself in various battles in France, particularly in the great drive of 1918. They lived up to the brilliant record made by their earliest comrades, the heroes of the Allies' ill-starred venture at Gallipoli in 1915. The bravery of the Australian soldier became proverbial. The German hated to go up against the Australian, the Highlander and the Canadian perhaps more than any other troops.

Australia intends seeing that her soldiers are well cared for on their return and intends repatriating and re-establishing them in civil life at a cost of one hundred and fifty million dollars.

New Zealand, with a population of over a million, sent about one hundred thousand troops to battle. Together with the Australians the New Zealanders formed the famous "Anzac" corps at Gallipoli. The New Zealanders were fine fighters and as such greatly respected by the Germans.

THE BRITISH NAVY

Much has been said in this book on the work of the British navy because it was such a vital factor in the war. Yet new facts are continually coming to light which increase the admiration and wonder of everybody for the stupendous work achieved by the British Admiralty.

In August, 1914, the British navy had a tonnage of 2,500,000. and a personnel of 145,000 officers and men. When war ceased the navy, including the auxiliary fleet, had a tonnage of 8,000,000. The personnel of the navy, exclusive of that employed on mercantile service, patrol vessels and mine sweepers amounted to 500,000. In the auxiliary naval service which employed 50,000 men about 10,000 gave up their lives in the cause. In addition to all these 1,000,000 men were engaged exclusively in work for the navy.

From 1910 to 1914 Germany imported the following materials annually: Raw cotton, 405,000 tons; copper, 181,000 tons; sugar, 4,771,000 tons; wool, 190,000 tons; hides, 239,000 tons; meat, 1,919,000 tons; and coffee, 180,000 tons. When war started these imports, except for small driblets through neutral countries, practically ceased because of the British blockade. Never for a moment did the British strangle-hold on Germany relax and when the end came Germany was woefully short of raw materials for ordnance manufacturing.

Great Britain supplied fifty per cent of the coal for the railways and munition factories of France. She also loaned France 1,000,000 tons of shipping and Italy 500,000 tons. Sixty per cent of the American soldiers sent to Europe were carried in British vessels.

The British navy kept the highways of the seas open for British ships which carried 130,000,000 tons of food and other supplies for use of the Entente Allies and the United States.

It patrolled incessantly 140,000 square miles of the North Sea.

Steamed in one month (June, 1918), 8,000,000 miles; sunk, destroyed or captured 150 German submarines, about half the total strength of the under-sea force.

Raised its personnel from 145,000 to 500,000.

Armed and maintained 3,500 auxiliary patrol boats as against less than 20 when the war began.

Enabled food for 46,000,000 inhabitants of Great Britian and Ireland to be brought from overseas despite the furious U-boat campaign whose principal object was to starve them into submission.

Kept Britain's 8,000,000 soldiers and sailors well fed and in every field of action.

Made possible the uninterrupted supply of munitions, coal and food needed by the armies, navies and 75,000,000 inhabitants of France and Italy.

During the war the British navy transported by military sea transport the following:

Personnel effectives	23,388,000
Non effectives	8,336,000
Animals	2,264,000
British military stores	47,993,000 tons

During the war it lost 230 warships, big and little, and in addition 450 auxiliary ships such as mine sweepers, yet at the end the fleet was bigger and stronger than ever.

Of the allied forces fighting submarines in the Atlantic towards the end of the struggle eighty per cent were British, fourteen per cent were American and six per cent were French.

Of allied submarines hunting enemy submarines in the Atlantic, seventy-eight per cent were British, seventeen per cent French, and five per cent American.

Between the signing of the armistice and April 1st, 1919, British mine sweepers had destroyed no fewer than five thousand, five hundred moored mines, and no merchantmen sailing by the prescribed routes had been damaged by a moored mine. It is a splendid tribute to the British mercantile marine that no merchantman had ever failed to sail owing to lack of men, although there were men who had been torpedoed and mined as many as five times.

BRITISH SUBMARINE OPERATIONS

The British Admiralty have not yet published all their submarine secrets nor are they likely to. During the war practically nothing was heard of British submarine operations, yet Britain began with 80 submarines, built 130 more and lost 50. Germany had no monopoly of the submarine. The 160 submersibles which Germany surrendered contained no secrets to the British. In fact, the plans of German submarines had sometimes been obtained and examined before one of the same type had been captured; indicating that Germany had no monopoly of secret service efficiency either.

It is not generally known that the submarine played a considerable part in British convoy work in the German submarine zone and exerted quite a moral effect. The immunity of convoys of ships coming from America may be accounted for by a combination of destroyer protection, smoke screens, aircraft observation, zig-zagging, careful planning, and other things—including submarines.

British submarines were largely used in patrol work in the North Sea and probably made mine-laying by German submarines more difficult.

Over twelve thousand British mines were laid from March to November, 1918, by one flotilla in the Helgoland Bight area. Night after night and day after day our mine-laying submarines entered the huge German mine fields off Helgoland and blocked the channels through which some German boats left and returned. These trap mines led to over one hundred German craft being caught the first six months of 1918.

Out of two hundred and three German U-boats lost during the war, one hundred and twenty were sunk with all on board, and fully half of the crews of the rest perished. Of fifty-nine British submarines lost, thirty-nine were destroyed by Germans, four were interned, seven blown up in the Baltic and nine sunk by accident or wrecked.

On September 6, 1918, the Admiralty made public the fact that one hundred and fifty German submarines had been disposed of and published the names and fate of their commanders. The list published did not contain the names of Austrian submarines, of which a number had also been destroyed.

Of the officers commanding the U-boats, one hundred and sixteen were dead, twenty-seven were prisoners of war, six were interned in neutral countries, and one escaped to Germany.

Altogether the allied and neutral countries lost 21,404,913 tons of shipping during the war, of which all but 7,157,088 tons were replaced. As 3,795,000 tons of enemy shipping was seized, the allied and neutral nations had only 3,362,088 less tons in operation at the end of the war than in August, 1914.

THE PARAVANE

This invention of Lieutenant Burney, son of Admiral Sir Cecil Burney, Commander-in-Chief at Rosyth, is supposed to have saved Great Britain $40,000,000 worth of ships. The Paravane is a sort of kite on the end of a hawser, suspended from each side of a ship. As the ship moves the pull on the kite tightens, the hawsers stand out straight on either side and sweep up any mines that may be met with.

New mine fields were often discovered by means of this device, and cruisers caught in such mine fields have successfully cut their way through them. Different types were developed, one of which was used with success against U-boats.

For the invention of the Paravane, of which thousands were manufactured, Lieutenant Burney was made acting commander, awarded the C. M. G., and given a sum of money, the amount of which was not made public.

THE FERRY TO FRANCE

One of the most jealously guarded secrets of the war was the construction of the terminal of Richborough on the south coast of England. On a site of 2,200 acres of waste land near Sandwich was built a large railway terminal, storage yards and plant for the construction of steel barges. Twenty thousand officers and men were employed at this terminal. There three steel ferries were constructed, each 363 feet long, 61 feet wide and drawing 10 feet of water. They had a speed of twelve knots and a displacement of 3,655 tons. Each ferry was provided with four tracks running the length of the ship and could carry fifty-four ten-ton trucks. The trains were run directly on to the ferries at Richborough, which was accommodated with movable ferry slips to rise and fall with the tides. At the terminal in France the trains were run off and taken direct to their destination. Tanks, artillery and locomotives were also carried over on these ferries to Calais and Dunkirk.

The service began in February, 1917, and in the interval to the end of the war 1,285,000 tons, of which 785,000 consisted of guns and ammunition, were transported to France.

Two hundred and thirty-two steel barges were also built at Richborough and were used to haul material through the canal systems in France, right to the army front without transshipment. Fifty tugs were used in this work.

A similar terminal was established opposite Southampton with a ferry service to Dieppe. So well was the Richborough location concealed, that it was never subjected to bombardment by airplane or Zeppelin.

BRITISH SECRET SERVICE

Like the British navy the British Secret Service worked in silence. England, of course, was overrun with German spies, many of them from neutral countries. As they nearly all attempted to forward their letters by post, their efforts were detected by the censor. The British Secret Service did not necessarily arrest spies at once, but allowed them to "carry on," reserving the right to open the correspondence both ways and make such alterations as would benefit the Allies. Only eight German spies were executed in England during the war, but many are undergoing penal servitude.

So well did the British Intelligence system work that the withdrawal from Gallipoli, the construction of tanks, the preparations for the offensive at Cambrai, and the final great counter-offensive were perfectly concealed from the enemy though they were all known to numbers of people in Britain. The efforts of the six thousand persons employed in the department were so silent and unobtrusive that its very existence was almost unknown to the general public.

Through the efforts of this department enemy remittances of $350,000,000 were stopped and the enemy's overseas communication, in so far as they were vulnerable, completely destroyed. In controlling speculative transactions in raw materials and prices, vast sums of money estimated at approximately $1,000,000,000 were saved the country through the efforts of this service.

TANKS

Ludendorff, chief of the German Staff, intimated after the war that the Allies won the war because of their tanks and that Germany, on account of lack of raw materials, had been unable to build them in quantity. This was an indirect tribute to the value of the British navy.

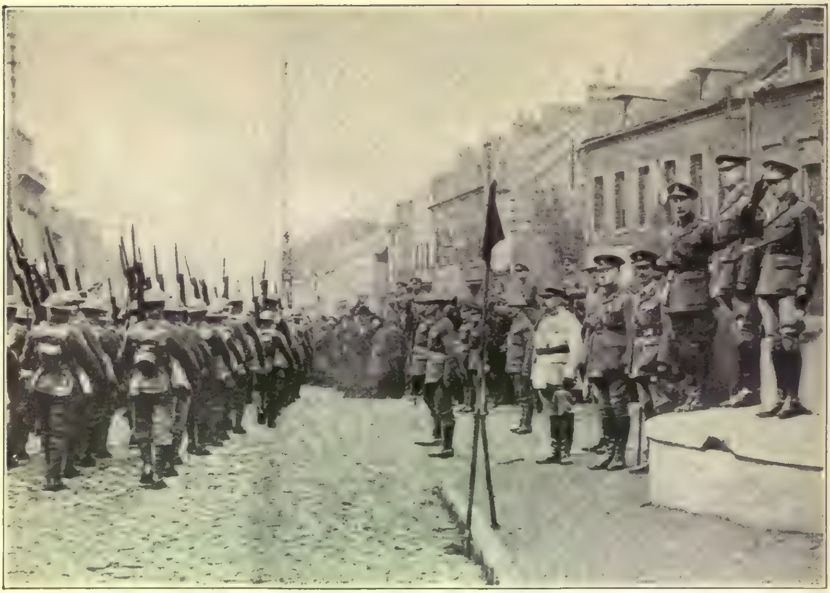
The tank was a purely British invention and on its very first unheralded appearance during the Somme offensive, proved to be a success in breaking through the German defensive system and inspiring wholesome fear in the heart of the enemy.

The first British tank weighed about twenty-five tons and carried a crew of eight to ten men. In long trips over difficult country the large tanks broke down through engine trouble, presented a large mark for anti-tank guns, were slow and cumbersome. Because of their size the number of tanks in any offensive was strictly limited. Furthermore, experience showed that the main object of tanks was to carry guns, ammunition and crews, and not to crush enemy defences.

Accordingly a smaller tank was developed capable of carrying two men and a machine gun or small cannon. The first small tanks to take the field were the British Whippets, which traveled up to fifteen miles an hour, were manœuvred easily, could coordinate perfectly with infantry and proved a magnificent success from the start. During the Foch counter-offensives the French brought out their counterpart of the Whippet in the baby Renault tank, which also proved a success from the start. The Renault tank consisted of an armoured body thirteen feet in length, six and a half feet in height and three feet in width, equipped with a caterpillar tread and power plant. The armoured plate is from one-fifth to three-fifths of an inch thick of special chrome steel, capable of withstanding small arm ammunition and the burst of small shells.

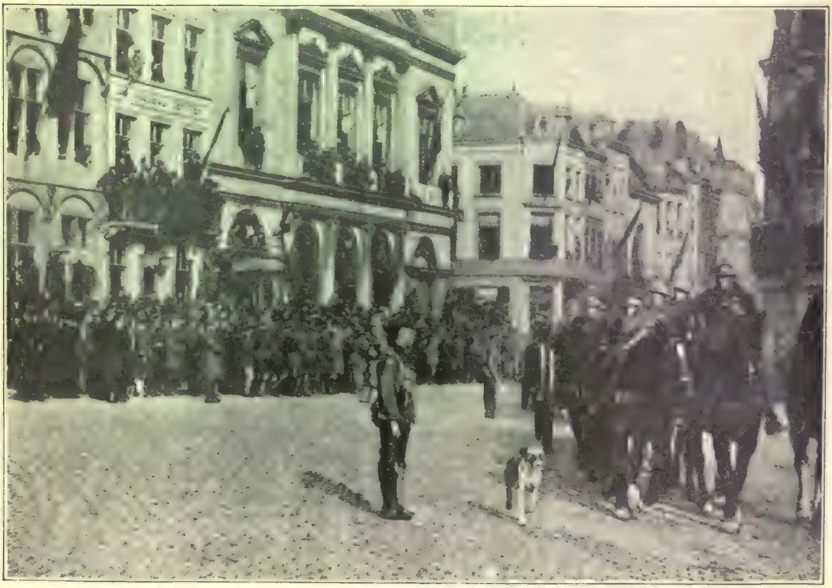
CIVILIAN WORK

To give any adequate conception of what the women and men engaged in war work in England accomplished would take several chapters. Every one who saw anything of the work done was filled with admiration and wonder at the tremendous achievements of British women, 1,200,000 of whom replaced men.



LIBERATORS OF DENAIN

Canadians marching in review past the Prince of Wales and General Sir Arthur Currie.



VICTORIOUS ENTRY OF THE CANADIAN ARMY INTO MONS

The last great exploit of the Canadian troops before the signing of the armistice was the bitterly contested struggle for this historic city. This photograph shows the Canadian Field Artillery passing through the square on November 11, 1918.

113,000 of these were employed in agriculture. The British Government dispassionately ranked their work with that of the men in the army. Lloyd George himself believed that if it had not been for the way in which women had come forward and carried on the work of the men,—who had to be taken out of vital industries and sent to France to fight in the last great offensives,—Great Britain and the Allies would probably have not been able to withstand the terrific series of attacks which the enemy launched in the spring of 1918 in the hope of dividing the French and British armies.

During the war British factories turned out 60,000,000 boots and supplied 2,000,000 respirators to the Italian army.

Over 1,500,000 men in the British Isles were engaged on munition work; 260,000 in industrial work for the Allies; 1,000,000 for the Admiralty, and 375,000 digging coal.

FINANCIAL BURDEN

During the war Great Britain not only raised a huge army of over five million, equivalent to the continental size, kept the seas clear of the enemy, developed the largest and most efficient air force and became the greatest manufacturer of ordnance and munitions in the world, but she carried the heaviest financial burden.

Britain made vast sacrifices of her accumulated wealth in helping to win victory for the Allies.

During the latter period the war cost Britain $35,000,000 per day, which was the pre-war income of the nation. She did not spare herself as to costs in the war, but if the same expenditures had occurred in the United States taking the proportion of income that country would have spent about $100,000,000 a day, according to Mr. Bonar Law.

During the war the annual national income of Great Britain increased from $2,000,000,000 to $7,000,000,000. Three-quarters of the huge national expenditure was met by loan, and one-quarter by ordinary revenue, taxation and the like.

These resources would have been sufficient to cover the whole obligation incurred by the United Kingdom if the Allies had been financially self-supporting. But they were not and had to be loaned huge sums to enable them to carry on the war.

UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

To the signing of the armistice Britain had loaned her Allies the following sums:

Russia	$2,840,000,000
France	2,125,000,000
Italy	1,725,000,000
Smaller Allies	635,000,000
Total	$7,325,000,000

Her own dominions were also loaned $218,500,000.

As Mr. Bonar Law stated: "All through the war down to the present time it had been nearly true to say that we have met our own war requirements on land and sea by our own daily efforts without mortgaging the future or dissipating the past. The menace to our future wealth and prosperity has lain in the necessity of finding resources for our Allies outside our own borders, over and above the requirements of our own navy and expeditions and land forces."

Great Britain incurred a great loss of accumulated capital in the sale of foreign securities such as American railway bonds. She also incurred a heavy loss in the millions of tonnage of mercantile marine lost.

The total national debt of Britain at the end of the financial year, 1918, assuming that only one-half of the amounts lent to the Allies and the Dominions was repaid, would amount to $34,000,000,000. Against this will be set such compensation as may be received from Germany for reparation.

But the burden of debt will be enormous, and the service of the debt, interest and sinking-fund, the payments in the way of pensions and other sequels of the war, will produce budget figures which would have staggered the imagination of former Chancellors of the Exchequer. Provided capital and labour worked together harmoniously with the great object of increasing national production, Mr. Bonar Law believed that Britain would rapidly repair her losses and advance to new wealth and power.

AIR FORCES

The growth of the British Air Service was phenomenal. Beginning in 1914 the British had altogether just 130 aircraft of all types. In the week of August 8th to August 15th, 1918, the British air forces brought down 339 German machines and dropped 320 tons of bombs on enemy batteries and ammunition dumps.

British air squadrons took the lead on the French front, the Italian front, the Balkan front, in Persia, Palestine and Mesopotamia. Other facts will be found in the chapter entitled "With the Canadian Airmen."

THE BRITISH ARMY

The brilliant part played by Britain's "contemptible little army" at the most critical period of the war undoubtedly was a great factor in saving France from a speedy defeat. It must be remembered that at the beginning the French army was not what it developed into later on. Some of the divisions from the south of France had not the fighting spirit or the efficiency of the divisions recruited near the borders of Germany where legends of invasion had never been forgotten. There was also inefficiency and treachery through German agents who had worked up to high posts in the French army. And it was one of Joffre's tasks to get rid of these, a task which he accomplished with skill and speed. The army of one hundred thousand thoroughly trained and equipped British regulars was a wonderful addition to the French army at the crucial moment, and played a magnificent part in breaking down the German war machine.

At the end of the first year two million volunteers had joined the colours. Towards the close of May, 1916, King George publicly announced that more than five million volunteers had entered the army and the navy.

In August, 1918, Lloyd George said that the British Empire had raised for the army and the navy a total of more than 8,500,000 men. Of this grand total India had contributed 1,500,000; the British Dominions 1,000,000; and Great Britain itself 6,255,000.

At the end of the war every third male in the British Isles, including boy babies in arms and men of ninety, was engaged in some war service.

It must never be forgotten that British forces fought not only in France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Siberia and the Balkans, but in Kiaochow, New Guinea, Samoa, Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Sudan, Cameroons, Togoland, East Africa, Southwest Africa, Aden, Persia and Afghanistan. At no time were more than 1,750,000

British troops actually engaged on the French front and on lines of communication. In all British soldiers suffered some 3,000,000 casualties, while about 900,000 suffered death.

Unmoved by criticism, by sneers and worse from some who considered themselves masters of military strategy, Great Britain kept armies in Salonika, Mesopotamia and Palestine. The unconditional surrender of Bulgaria, with its disastrous consequences to the Central Powers, proved the worth of that "Divine Folly."

THE HEAVIEST FIGHTING FALLS ON THE BRITISH

The work of the British troops in the last one hundred days of the war can be no better expressed than in the tribute paid to them by Sir Douglas Haig in his official despatch:

"In three months of epic fighting the British armies in France have brought to a sudden and dramatic end the great wearing-out battle of the last four years.

"In our admiration for this outstanding achievement the long years of patient and heroic struggle by which the strength and spirit of the enemy were gradually broken down cannot be forgotten. The strain of those years was never-ceasing, the demands they made upon the best of the empire's manhood are now known. Yet throughout all those years, and amid the hopes and disappointments they brought with them, the confidence of our troops in final victory never wavered. Their courage and resolution rose superior to every test, their cheerfulness never failing, however terrible the conditions in which they lived and fought. By the long road they trod with so much faith and with such devoted and self-sacrificing bravery we have arrived at victory, and to-day they have their reward.

"The work begun and persevered in so steadfastly by those brave men has been completed during the present year with a thoroughness to which the event bears witness, and with a gallantry which will live for all time in the history of our country. The annals of war hold record of no more wonderful recovery than that which, three months after the tremendous blows showered upon them on the Somme and on the Lys, saw the undefeated British armies advancing from victory to victory, driving their erstwhile triumphant enemy back to and far beyond the line from which he started, and finally forcing him to acknowledge unconditional defeat.

"The great series of victories won by the British forces between August 8th and November 11th is the outstanding feature of the events described in this dispatch. At Amiens and Bapaume, in the breaking of the Drocourt-Quéant and Hindenburg systems, before Le Cateau and on the Selle, in Flanders and on the Sambre, the enemy was again and again brought to battle and defeated.

"In the decisive contests of this period, the strongest and most vital parts of the enemy's front were attacked by the British, his lateral communications were cut and his best divisions fought to a standstill. On the different battlefronts 187,000 prisoners and 2,850 guns were captured by us, bringing the total of our prisoners for the present year to over 201,000. Immense numbers of machine guns and trench mortars were taken also, the figures of those actually counted exceeding 29,000 machine guns and some 3,000 trench mortars. These results were achieved by fifty-nine fighting British divisions, which in the course of three months of battle engaged and defeated ninety-nine separate German divisions.

"This record furnishes the proof of the skill of our commanders and their staffs, as well as of the fine fighting qualities of the British regimental officer and soldier. It is a proof also of the overwhelmingly decisive part played by the British armies on the western front in bringing the enemy to his final defeat."

CHAPTER XIII

Germany Pleads for Peace by Negotiation

Everywhere on the western front the German armies were being driven back, with heavy losses of men and material, by the allied armies. This, together with the collapse of Bulgaria, had made it necessary for Germany to conclude some kind of a peace by negotiation before irretrievable disaster met the armies of the Central Powers. Accordingly Prince Maximilian of Baden, who had succeeded von Hertling as Imperial Chancellor, on September 30th proceeded, with the co-operation of Turkey and Austria-Hungary, to launch a new peace drive, using the speech made by President Wilson in New York on September 27th as the basis of peace negotiations. The new Chancellor was willing to make greater concessions than had ever been offered before by Germany.

The note sent by Germany through the Swiss Government to President Wilson stated that the programme set forth by the President to Congress on January 8th and in his speech of September 27th would be accepted as a basis for peace negotiations. The German Government asked that the President acquaint all the belligerents with this request, invite them to send plenipotentiaries for the purpose of opening negotiations, and that an armistice on land, sea, and in the air be immediately concluded.

President Wilson, in replying, stated that he could not suggest an armistice as long as German armies were in allied territory, and asked whether the Imperial Chancellor was speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the German Empire, who had so far conducted the war. This unexpected reply caused much discussion, being commented on most favorably in Great Britain and regarded as a shrewd move everywhere.

The Germans' first reply appeared to accept the President's proposition to evacuate invaded territory, and Berlin, believing the note to be an unselfish peace offer, went wild with excitement at the prospect of peace.

Before the President made his second reply fresh devastations in France and new submarine atrocities occurred, particularly that in which a British mail steamer was torpedoed off Ireland with the loss of hundreds of lives, including more than one hundred women and children.

President Wilson's second note stated the allied position in no equivocal terms. He said that at the very moment Germany sought peace her retreating armies were wantonly destroying French towns while her submarines were killing innocent citizens, both of which procedures have always been regarded as a direct violation of the rules and practises of civilized warfare; that while acts of spoliation, inhumanity and desolation were being continued, the nations associated against Germany could not be expected to agree to a cessation of arms and would recall to the attention of the German Government a paragraph in an address delivered by him on July 4, 1918, which read:

> The destruction of every arbitrary power everywhere that can separately, secretly and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world; or if it cannot be presently destroyed, at least its reduction to virtual impotency.

The President went on to say that the power which had hitherto controlled the German nation was of the sort there described and that it was within the choice of the German nation to alter it, adding that the words just quoted would constitute a condition precedent to peace.

> The President feels bound to say that the whole process of peace will, in his judgment, depend upon the definiteness and the satisfactory character of the guarantees which can be given in this fundamental matter. It is indispensable that the governments associated against Germany should know beyond a peradventure with whom they are dealing.

This note met with universal approval by the allied nations, being interpreted as a demand that the Hohenzollerns get out, together with the German autocracy responsible for the war. In Germany the note had the effect of a cold douche ending for the time all hope of a peace by negotiation.

FOCH REPLIES BY RENEWED BLOWS

The effect of the Peace Drive had no effect upon the allied armies except to convince them that Germany had lost every vestige of hope of a victory by arms.

Under the direction of Foch, the allied commander-in-chief, the military battering ram drove new breaches in the German front, with, if possible, renewed power and energy.

LE CATEAU

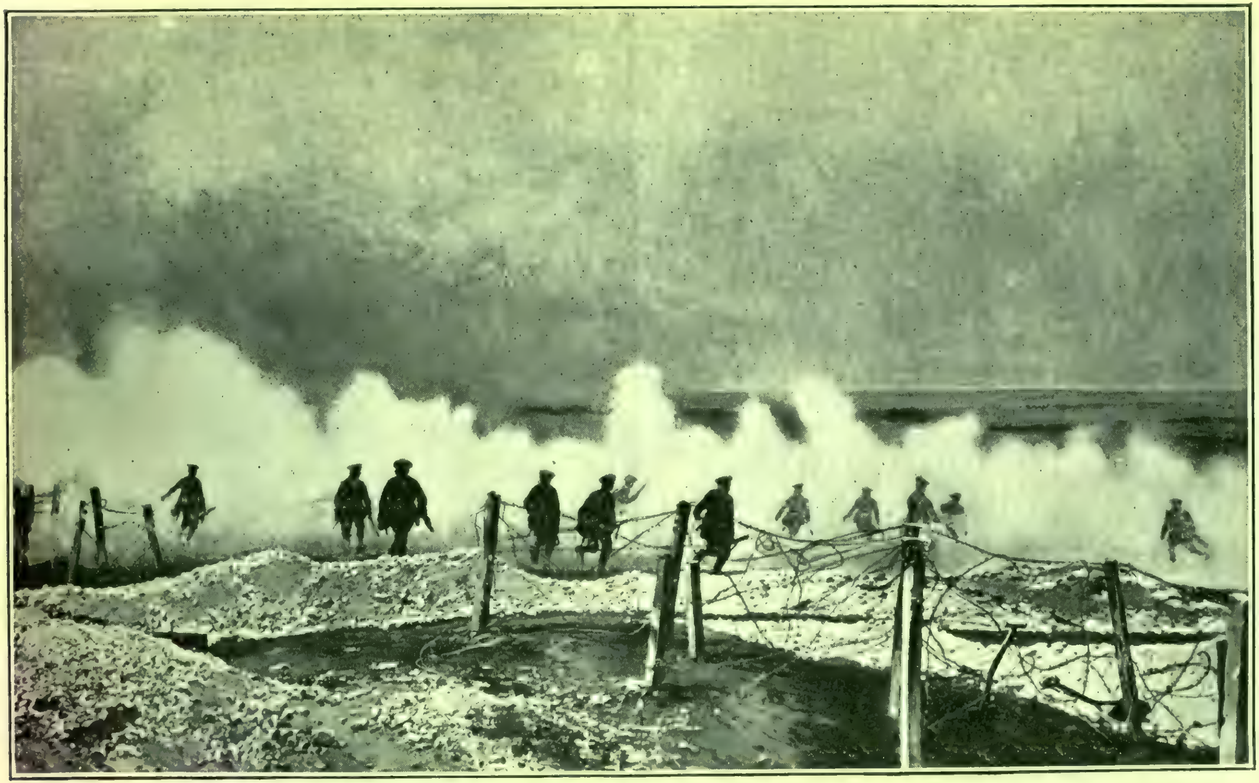
The result of the British successes showed itself immediately in the withdrawal of the enemy from the Lys front where Sir W. Birdwood, with his reorganized Fifth Army, kept pressing the retiring Germans.

The second and final phase of the British offensive now opened, in which the Fourth and Third armies and the right of the First Army moved forward with their left flank on the canal which runs from Cambrai to Mons and their right covered by the French First Army. This advance, by the capture of Maubeuge and the disrupting of the German main lateral system of communications, forced the enemy to fall back upon the line of the Meuse.

During that period the fighting which took place as a result of the development and exploitation of the Hindenburg line victory fell into three stages. These stages depended chiefly upon the depth of the advances made and the difficulties of re-establishing communications.

On October 8th the Third and Fourth British armies attacked over a seventeen-mile front from Sequehart to the south of Cambrai, while French troops continued the line of attack southeast to St. Quentin. South of this again French and American troops attacked east of the Meuse and in Champagne making important progress.

The enemy line along the British front was quickly penetrated to the depth of three and four miles and as a result the enemy's resistance gave way and he retired steadily towards Le Cateau. Thousands of prisoners and many guns were taken. The following night the Canadian Corps captured Ramillies and entered Cambrai at the same time British troops entered it from the south. Next day the advance continued, the British cavalry doing great work harrying the enemy's retirement and preventing him from destroying railways. A dashing charge by the Canadian Fort Garry Horse on Cattigny Wood where strong enemy resistance developed enabled the infantry to press forward while Dragoon Guards and Canadian cavalry captured several villages. Meanwhile to our right the First French Army advanced to the Oise-Sambre Canal.



CHARGING WITH A SMOKE BARRAGE

One of the devices which confused and terrified the Germans was the smoke barrage produced by specially thrown smoke bombs. Through this thick screen of vapour which precluded any accurate aim at our advancing lines, wave after wave of soldiers of the Empire would suddenly sweep over the German trenches in an irresistible attack.

As the Selle River was approached the enemy resistance stiffened, bringing to an end the first stage of the advance.

In this advance twenty British infantry, one American infantry and two British cavalry divisions routed twenty-four German divisions, captured 12,000 prisoners and 250 guns and obtained possession of the railway running from St. Quentin to Cambrai.

By October 13th our armies had reached the Selle River at all points south of Haspres and had established bridgeheads. Meanwhile, on October 7th, the enemy had withdrawn south of Lens and by October 13th had reached the suburbs of Douai.

BATTLE OF THE SELLE RIVER

The lines of communication having sufficiently improved the British commenced to force the Selle River with the object of attaining the general line of the Sambre and Oise Canal at the west edge of the Forest of Mormal-Valenciennes.

On October 17th the Fourth British Army attacked on a front of ten miles from Le Cateau southward, the French First Army attacking in conjunction with us west of the Sambre and Oise Canal. The assault was delivered by five British and two American divisions. The enemy, well supported by artillery, fought obstinately, but by the evening of October 19th, after much severe fighting, had been driven across the Sambre and Oise Canal at practically all points south of Catillon. On October 20th nine British divisions of the Third and First armies attacked the line of the Selle River north of Le Cateau. The enemy, protected by new wire entanglements, bitterly contested our advance, but, supported by tanks, our infantry, after hard fighting, gained their objectives on the high ground east of the Selle River. Other troops of the First Army progressed on both sides of the Scheldt Canal and occupied Denain.

The capture of the Selle position was followed, on October 23d, by a large operation involving an assault by fifteen British divisions on a fifteen-mile front from Mazinghien to Maison Bleue. On the following day three more British divisions continued the attack for another five miles north to the Scheldt. The fighting was severe, but by the evening of October 24th our troops were within a mile of Le Quesnoy and three days later the line was established north and east of the Le Quesnoy-Valenciennes railway.

In this battle twenty-four British and two American divisions had beaten thirty-one German divisions and captured 20,000 prisoners and 475 guns.

THE ENEMY'S POSITION AT THE END OF OCTOBER

The rapid succession of heavy blows dealt by the British forces had had a cumulative effect, both moral and material, upon the German armies. His reserves had become exhausted and his enormous losses of guns, ammunition and material had increased with each successive attack. Though resistance was made to our initial assaults the German infantry and machine gunners were no longer reliable. Cases were reported of their retirement without fighting before our artillery barrage.

The desperate condition of her Austrian ally, which the allied successes rendered impossible to alleviate, and the capitulation of her other allies—Bulgaria and Turkey—made Germany's ultimate defeat a certainty, though it was possible that the struggle might be protracted. The British armies were now, however, in a position to prevent this by a direct attack upon a vital centre which would anticipate the enemy's withdrawal and force an immediate conclusion.

BATTLE OF THE SAMBRE

On November 1st and 2d three British divisions and the Fourth Canadian division attacked on a six-mile front and, after heavy fighting, the British established themselves in their objectives on the high ground across the Rhonelle River while the Canadians captured Valenciennes.

The enemy then began withdrawing his line from threatened positions but before this could be successfully accomplished an attack was made along a thirty-mile front from the Sambre to Valenciennes. The country attacked was most difficult; the river had to be crossed and streams, running parallel to the line of advance, and woods presented formidable obstacles. Nevertheless the British were now perfectly satisfied that they had the enemy on the run and surmounting all obstacles advanced to a depth of five miles on the first day. Severe fighting took place but the British were everywhere victorious, capturing numerous towns, including Le Quesnoy by the New Zealand division. During these operations, twenty-two British divisions utterly defeated thirty-two German divisions, capturing 19,000 more prisoners and 450 guns.

On the British right the French First Army, continuing the line of attack, kept pace with us, capturing 5,000 prisoners and a number of guns.

THE RETURN TO MONS

As a result of this great victory the enemy's resistance was definitely broken and on the night of November 4th his troops began to fall back all along the battle front.

Throughout the following days amid continuous rain, which imposed great hardships on our troops, infantry and cavalry pressed forward with scarcely a check, keeping in close touch with the rapidly retreating Germans.

The roads, packed with enemy troops and transport, made great targets for our airmen, who took full advantage of every opportunity, despite the unfavourable weather. Thirty guns, which aerial bombs and machine-gun fire alone had forced the enemy to abandon, were taken by one battalion.

North of the Mons-Conde Canal numerous explosions behind the German lines indicated the enemy withdrawal in that area and on the following morning corps of the First and Fifth armies advanced across the Scheldt on a considerable front.

By November 9th the enemy was in general retreat along the whole British front. The fortress of Maubeuge was entered by the Guards division and Sixty-second division while the Canadians were approaching Mons.

Next day all of the five British armies advanced, preceded by cavalry and cyclists. Only in front of Mons was any substantial opposition met with and there the Canadians, advancing from the south and west and working around it to the north, encountered an organized and tenacious machine-gun resistance. Further north the cavalry had reached Ath, and the line was far to the east of Tournai. Renaix had also been captured and British troops were approaching Grammont.

In the morning of November 11th the Third Canadian division captured Mons, the whole of the defending force being killed or taken prisoners.

At 11 A. M. on November 11th, in accordance with instructions received from the commander-in-chief of the allied armies, hostilities were suspended.

THE MILITARY SITUATION ON THE BRITISH FRONT ON NOVEMBER 11TH

Since November 1st British troops had broken the enemy's resistance beyond possibility of recovery and had forced on him a disorderly retreat along the whole front of the British armies. Thereafter the enemy was capable neither of accepting nor refusing battle. The utter confusion of his troops, the state of his railways congested with abandoned trains, the capture of huge quantities of rolling stock and material all showed that our attacks had been decisive. It had been followed on the north by the evacuation of the Tournai salient, and to the south, where the French forces had pushed forward in conjunction with us, by a rapid and costly withdrawal to the line of the Meuse.

The strategic plan of the Allies had been realized with a completeness rarely seen in war. When the armistice was signed by the enemy his defensive powers had already been definitely destroyed. A continuance of hostilities could only have meant disaster to the German armies and the armed invasion of Germany.

There is little doubt that the magnificent accomplishment of the British was the most glorious achievement in the whole history of the British army. The overcoming of the Somme defences in August was a superb feat; the breaking of the Hindenburg line, with weakened forces, was almost superhuman. It is possible that in future years the miracle by which fifty-nine British divisions inflicted such crushing defeat on ninety-nine German divisions, will be found due to a considerable extent in swift tanks which played such a vital part in affording us a tactical superiority. So great was the effect produced on the Germans by British tanks that in more than one instance, when real tanks were not available, results were obtained by the use of dummy canvas tanks. It was quite evident that the superior morale of the British was a vital factor and proved for all time that the manhood of a free empire was more than a match for the armies of a military autocracy.

The dramatic change which occurred in the military situation was undoubtedly due to the genius of Marshal Foch, whose strategic conception was carried out with such wonderful loyalty and precision by all the allied armies. By it the whole campaign was revolutionized. The great French strategist, by raining a series of blows timed to achieve the maximum result, broke down the enemy front and the enemy morale at the same time. The decisive effort of the whole campaign was probably the battle of Cambrai, from September 27th to October 8th, in which the British First, Third and Fourth armies broke through the vast defences of the Hindenburg system. It was that victory that broke General Ludendorff's nerve and was the cause of the first appeal to President Wilson for an armistice.

MUTINY IN THE GERMAN NAVY

As early as the spring of 1915 there were minor mutinies on different German warships and on September 7, 1915, the Kaiser addressed a "strictly secret" special order to the officers of the Imperial navy exhorting them to be less severe in maintaining discipline among the men. Discontent increased, however, and in March, 1916, a mutiny occurred on one battleship and a few weeks later a more serious affair as a result of which thirty of the ringleaders were condemned to death.

In the spring a more serious mutiny occurred in the High Seas Fleet in which the captain of one vessel was thrown overboard and drowned and other officers wounded. One hundred and ninety men were executed for taking part in this mutiny.

The final successful mutiny occurred on October 31, 1918, when the Admiral commanding the High Seas Fleet gave the signal to put to sea. One captain made a patriotic speech to his sailors ending with a statement to the effect that they would fight to the last shot and then go down with colours flying. The sailors interpreting this as a last desperate attempt to fight the British navy and be made a sacrifice of, promptly extinguished the fires and flooded the holds with water. The mutineers immediately communicated with the next vessel and the crew of the Helgoland also broke into open mutiny.

Torpedo boats were then despatched by the Admiral, the mutineers, 1,500 in number, surrendered and were taken to Wilhelmshaven to await their trial.

On the same day smaller troubles on other ships showed the impossibility of the High Seas Fleet putting to sea. Within twenty-four hours most of the crews and the whole of the marine garrison of Wilhelmshaven were in open revolt! The men at Kiel followed suit and by November 2d Cuxhaven, Brunsbuttel, Emden and Lübeck were in the hands of the mutineers. The German fleet had virtually ceased to exist.

In Berlin it was not considered wise to send soldiers against the mutineers and the latter seizing their opportunity sent representatives to Berlin, Munich and other cities to stir up the Socialists and revolutionary centres.

The fact has been definitely established that the naval mutiny resulted in the contagion spreading to the civilians and from them to the army at the front.

REVOLUTION IN BERLIN

For months before the naval mutiny, preparations had been secretly made by Independent Socialists and Spartacus communists for an armed uprising in Berlin and other centres. The Army General Staff, knowing of the secret preparations for revolt, had select bodies of soldiers, equipped with light and heavy artillery, machine guns, gas bombs, hand grenades, gas masks and other paraphernalia, ready for action in Berlin, Spandau and elsewhere.

Upon arrival of the sailors' emissaries the Independent Socialists fixed November 11th as the date of a general strike under the disguise of which they would begin a revolution. The Scheidemann Socialists, formerly docile government supporters, suddenly went over and joined forces with the Independent Socialists. Almost immediately they secured the support of the Berlin garrison and particularly of the special corps sent in to put down the uprising, thus assuring the success of the revolution. Prince Max of Baden, the German Chancellor, believing that none but a purely Socialist Government could avert war, resigned his post and Scheidemann, not certain of the results of the revolution, thrust his colleague Ebert into the supreme position.

CHAPTER XIV

The Fall of Kings and Empires

Not knowing anything of what was occurring in Germany, or of the conditions either physical or mental through which the German nation was passing, the end of the war came with startling suddenness to the whole world. Little was known of the strike of the sailors of the High Sea Fleet; nothing was known of the revolution in Berlin or of its spread to the army. The fate of Bulgaria, Turkey and Austria-Hungary had made the end appear inevitable, but that it would come with such dramatic force was wholly unexpected.

When the Germans by wireless signified their desire for an armistice the German representatives were directed to proceed, on November 5th, to Chimoy, the spot designated, and cross the line at a certain hour. At 3 P. M. the French had orders to cease fire along the front near which the envoys were to cross and, late in the evening, the seven automobiles carrying the party passed through to the Forest of Compiegne where two trains stood on a siding, one used by Marshal Foch and the other for the use of the Germans.

There they were received by the allied commander-in-chief and given the dictated terms of surrender. There were no real negotiations. The Germans discussed the clauses for two days during which they were handed Paris newspapers announcing the flight of the Kaiser. The plenipotentiaries protested to the last against the armistice but they signed it and on November 11th at 11 o'clock in the morning the great war came to an end.

The International Armistice Commission began its sittings on November 12th at Spa, Belgium, in the grand salon of the Hotel Britannique. Before each sitting at 10 A. M. the German delegates arrived and stood in their places at a large table. The allied delegates then arrived and each bowed to the man opposite him before sitting down. There were no smiles, no pleasantries and everything was done with grim precision.

The terms of the armistice were the most severe ever imposed upon a first-class power and had at least two great primary objects. The first was to make it impossible for Germany to ever begin another war of aggression; the second was to make the German nation realize that though it had narrowly escaped invasion, it still had to pay the price of war and make what reparation was possible to the nations which it had planned to destroy.

The terms of the German armistice were as follows:

THE GERMAN ARMISTICE

I. Military clauses on Western front:

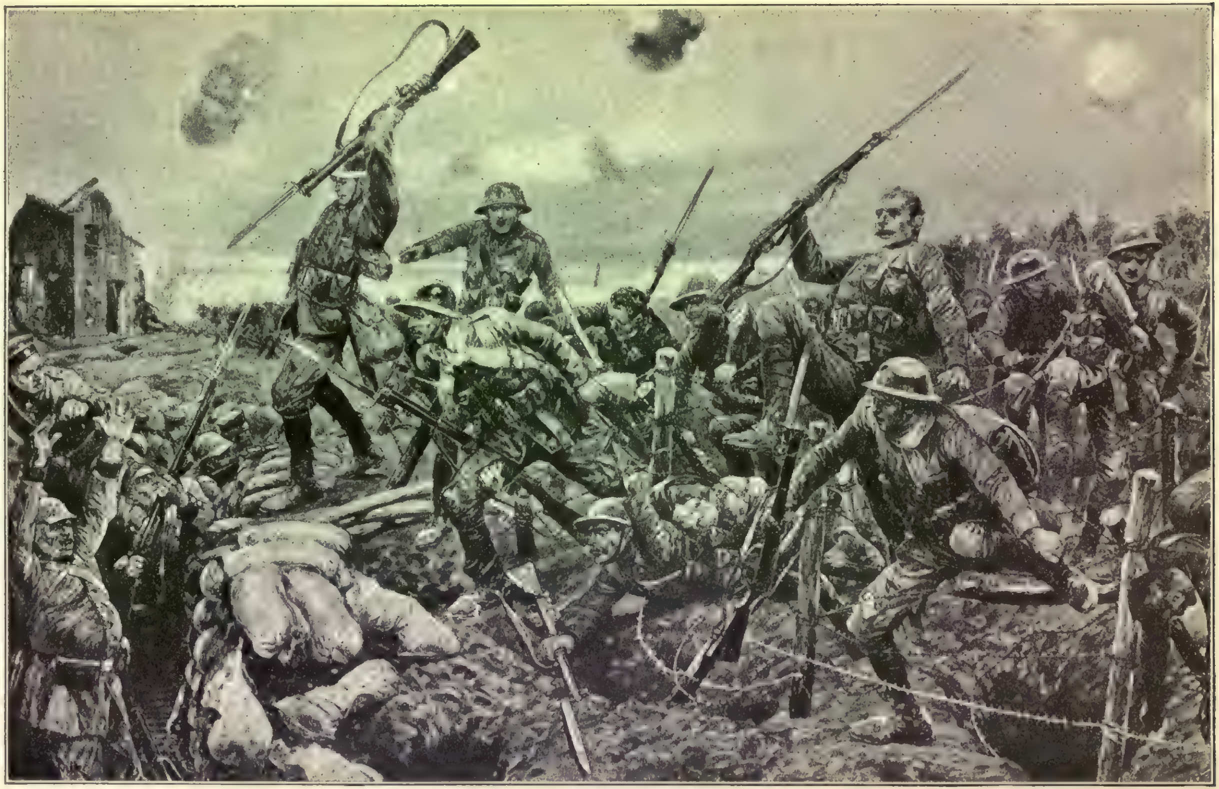
1. Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.

2. Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above mentioned territories within the period fixed will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the Allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

3. Repatriation beginning at once and to be completed within fifteen days of all inhabitants of the countries above mentioned, including hostages and persons under trial or convicted.

4. Surrender in good condition by the German armies of the following equipment: Five thousand guns (two thousand five hundred heavy, two thousand five hundred field), twenty-five thousand machine guns, three thousand minenwerfers, seventeen hundred airplanes. The above to be delivered in situ to the Allies and the United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the annexed note.

5. Evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. These countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by the local troops of occupation under the control of the Allied and United States armies of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be carried out by Allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine, Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne, together with bridgeheads at these points in thirty kilometer radius on the right bank



RUSHING THE GERMAN LINES AT ST. ELOI
Glorious charge on the German trenches through the enemy barrage and barbed wire.

and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points of the regions.

A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to it forty kilometers (twenty-six miles) to the east from the frontier of Holland to the parallel of Gernsheim and as far as practicable a distance of thirty kilometers (twenty miles) from the east of stream from this parallel upon Swiss frontier. Evacuation by the enemy of the Rhine lands shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of sixteen days, in all—thirty-one days after the signature of the armistice. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated according to the note annexed.

6. In all territory evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants. No destruction of any kind to be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered as well as military stores of food, munitions, equipment not removed during the periods fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left in situ. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be moved. Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroad, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired. No person shall be prosecuted for offenses of participation in war measures prior to the signing of the armistice.

7. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives, one hundred fifty thousand wagons and five thousand motor lorries in good working order with all necessary spare parts and fittings shall be delivered to the associated Powers within the period fixed for the evacuation of Belgium and Luxemburg. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within thirty-six days, together with all pre-war personnel and material. Further material necessary for the working of railways in the country on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left in situ. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals and repair shops left entire in situ and kept in an efficient state by Germany during the whole period of armistice. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. All civil and military personnel at present employed on

such means of communication and transporting including waterways shall remain. A note appended regulates the details of these measures.

8. The German command shall be responsible for revealing within forty-eight hours all mines or delay acting fuses disposed on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction. The German command shall also reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken (such as poisoning or polluting of springs, wells, etc.) under penalty of reprisals.

9. The right of requisition shall be exercised by the Allies and the United States armies in all occupied territory, "subject to regulation of accounts with those whom it may concern." The upkeep of the troops of occupation in the Rhine land (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German Government.

10. An immediate repatriation without reciprocity according to detailed conditions which shall be fixed, of all Allied and United States prisoners of war. The Allied Powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of these prisoners as they wish. This condition annuls the previous conventions on the subject of the exchange of prisoners of war, including the one of July, 1918, in course of ratification. However, the repatriation of German prisoners of war interned in Holland and in Switzerland shall continue as before. The repatriation of German prisoners of war shall be regulated at the conclusion of the preliminaries of peace."

11. Sick and wounded, who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

II. Disposition relative to the eastern frontiers of Germany:

12. All German troops at present in any territory which before the war belonged to Rumania, Turkey or Austria-Hungary shall immediately withdraw within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1, 1914. German troops now in Russian territory shall withdraw within the frontiers of Germany, as soon as the Allies, taking into account the internal situation of those territories, shall decide that the time for this has come.

13. Evacuation by German troops to begin at once and all German instructors, prisoners and civilian as well as military agents,

now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

14. German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertakings with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Rumania and Russia (as defined on August 1, 1914).

15. Renunciation of the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

16. The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier either through Danzig or by the Vistula in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories and for the purpose of maintaining order.

III. Clause concerning East Africa:

17. Evacuation by all German forces operating in East Africa within a period to be fixed by the Allies.

IV. General clauses:

18. Repatriation, without reciprocity, within maximum period of one month, in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed, of all civilians interned or deported who may be citizens of other allied or associated states than those mentioned in clause three, paragraph nineteen.

19. The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or repatriation of the cash deposit, in the National Bank of Belgium, and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Rumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that Power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

V. Naval conditions:

20. Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mer-

chant marines of the allied and associate Powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

21. All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of war of the allied and associated Powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

22. Surrender to the Allies and the United States of America all German submarines now existing (including all submarine cruisers and mine laying submarines), with their complete armament and equipment, in ports which will be specified by the Allies and the United States of America. Those which cannot take the sea shall be disarmed of the material and personnel and shall remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. All the conditions of the article shall be carried into effect within fourteen days. Submarines ready for sea shall be prepared to leave German ports immediately upon orders by wireless, and the remainder at the earliest possible moment.

23. The following German surface warships which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States of America shall forthwith be disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral ports, to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America and placed under the surveillance of the Allies and the United States of America, only caretakers being left on board, namely:

Six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers, including two mine layers, fifty destroyers of the most modern type. All other surface warships (including river craft) are to be concentrated in naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, and are to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States of America. All vessels of the auxiliary fleet (trawlers, motor vessels, etc.), are to be disarmed. Vessels designated for internment, shall be ready to leave German ports within seven days upon directions by wireless, and the military armament of all vessels of the auxiliary fleet shall be put on shore.

24. The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

25. Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marine of the allied and associated Powers.

To secure this Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Cattegat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

26. The existing blockade conditions set up by the allied and associated Powers are to remain unchanged and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture. The Allies and the United States shall have consideration to the provisioning of Germany during the armistice to the extent recognized as necessary.

27. All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

28. In evacuating the Belgian coasts and ports, Germany shall abandon all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, cranes and all other harbour materials, all materials for inland navigation, all aircraft and all materials and stores, all arms and armaments, and all stores and apparatus of all kinds.

29. All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany, all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America; all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all warlike and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in clause twenty-eight are to be abandoned.

30. All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the allied and associated Powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

31. No destruction of ships or materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender or restoration.

32. The German Government will notify neutral governments of the world, and particularly the Governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the allied and associated countries, whether by the German Government or by private German interests, and

whether in return for specific concessions such as the export of shipbuilding materials or not, are immediately cancelled

33. No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place after signature of the armistice.

VI. Duration of armistice:

34. The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days, with option to extend. During this period, on failure of execution of any of the above clauses, the armistice may be denounced by one of the contracting parties on forty-eight hours' previous notice. It is understood that the execution of Articles 3 and 18 shall not warrant the denunciation of the armistice on the ground of insufficient execution within a period fixed, except in the case of bad faith in carrying them into execution. In order to assume the execution of this convention under the best conditions, the principle of a Permanent International Armistice Commission is admitted. This commission shall act under the authority of the allied military and naval commanders-in-chief.

VIII. Time Limit for reply:

35. This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.

FOLLOWING THE ARMISTICE

The German Emperor fled from Spa, Belgium, by motor car and crossed the Dutch border on November 10th into Holland. There, after some delay, he was given a train and completed his journey by rail to Amerongen, where a friend, Count Bentinck, was to give him his house as an asylum. All the way along the stations swarmed with Belgian refugees and others who hissed the German party and shouted "Down with William, the Assassin!" At Amerongen, William Hohenzollern kept in close touch with conditions in Germany, and on November 28th, 1918, signed his abdication. It read:

> By the present document I renounce forever my rights to the crown of Prussia and the rights to the German imperial crown. I release at the same time all the officials of the German Empire and Prussia and also all officers, non-commissioned officers and soldiers of the Prussian

navy and army and of contingents from confederated states from the oath of fidelity they have taken to me, as their emperor, king, and supreme chief.

I expect from them until a new organization of the German Empire exists that they will aid those who effectively hold the power in Germany to protect the German people against the menacing dangers of anarchy, famine, and foreign domination.

Made and executed and signed by our own hand with the imperial seal at Amerongen, November 28 (1918).

Wilhelm.

The late Crown Prince, Frederich Wilhelm, was interned on the island of Wieringen where he was given the extremely modest local parsonage. Six months before the ex-Kaiser had issued the pompous message: "This morning William stormed the Chemin des Dames." On December 1st at Wieringen the son issued the following statement:

I renounce formally and definitely all rights to the crown of Prussia and the imperial crown, which would have fallen to me by the renunciation of the Emperor-King, or for other reasons.

Given by my authority and signed by my hand; done at Wieringen, December 1, 1918.

Frederich Wilhelm.

Under the terms of the armistice of November 11th the Germans agreed to evacuate all invaded allied territory by November 25th, and at once began their march toward the Rhine, closely followed by the allied armies.

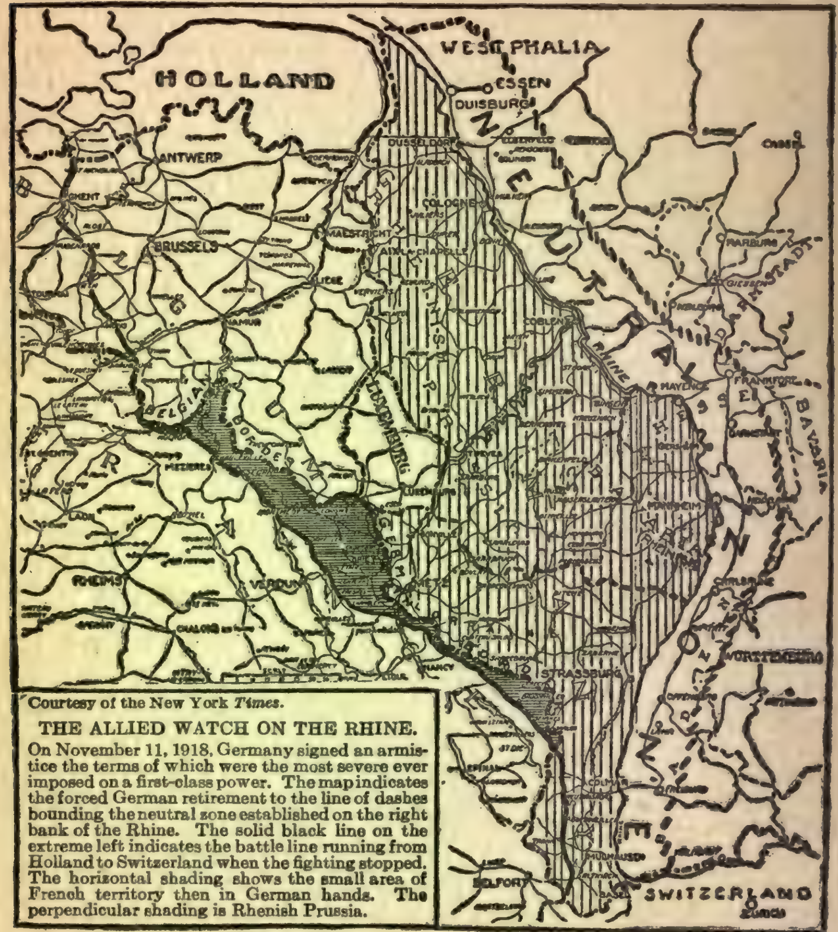
The seventeen German armies consisted of about 3,000,000 bayonets, and the allied armies of 5,938,000, made up as follows:

Two Belgian armies	300,000	combat troops
Five British armies	1,500,000	"
Three American armies	1,338,000	"
Ten French armies	2,500,000	"
One Italian, Polish and Czecho-Slovak army	300,000	"
	5,938,000	

The east bank of the Rhine for six miles and the areas around Cologne, Coblenz and Mainz within a radius of eighteen miles were to be completely freed of enemy troops. The armies of occupation consisted of all the Belgian, two British, one American and three French armies.

THE BRITISH ARMY

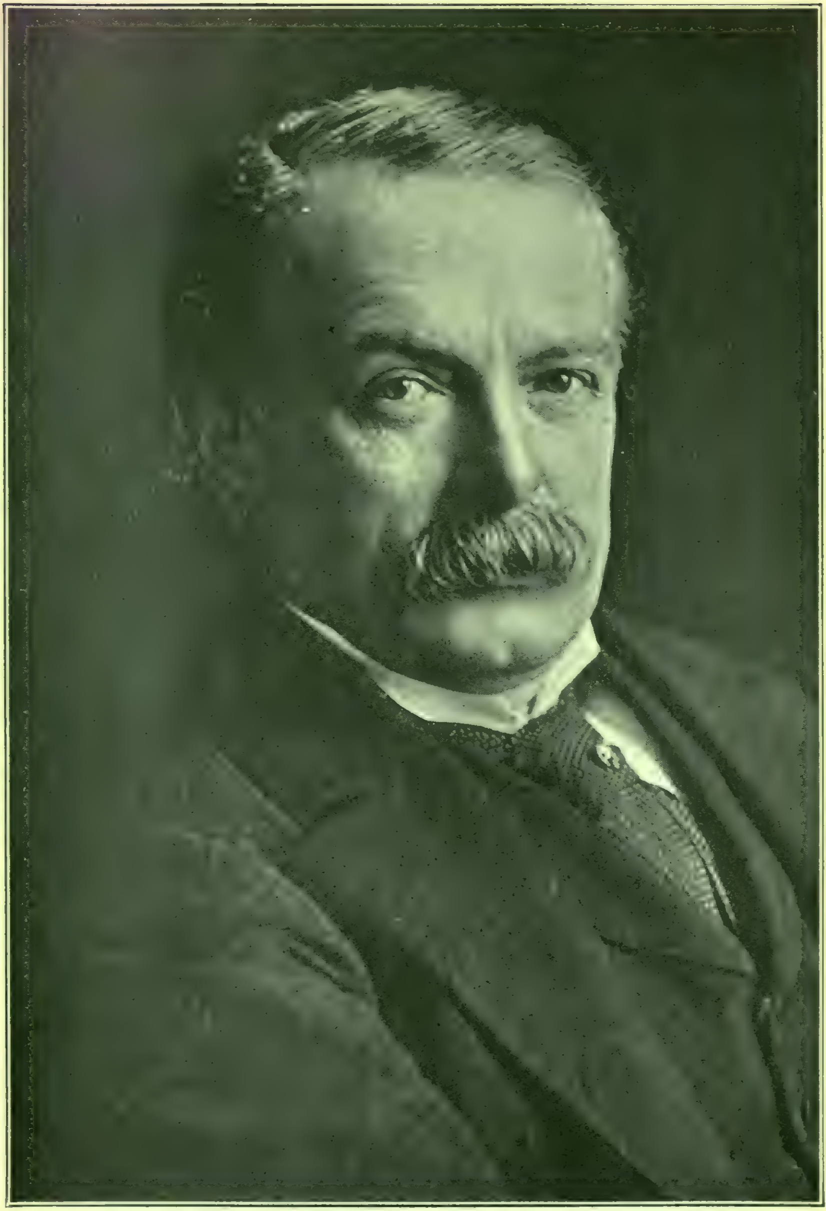
On December 1st British troops crossed the Belgian border and entered Germany. Defeat, revolution and the fear of worse things that might happen made the German people in general painfully anxious to abide by the rules laid down and get on the right side of those who now possessed the power of life and death over them. There was no more "Gott strafe England." On December 6th, British cavalry patrols, riding over the swing bridge, entered Cologne, being the first British troops to reach the Rhine. According to a tale told by Phillip Gibbs, the war correspondent, a young


HOLLAND
WESTPHALIA
ESSEN
DUISBURG
DUSSELDORF
ANTWERP
GHENT
BRUSSELS
MAESTRICHT
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE
COLOGNE
CASSEL
MARBURG
GIESSEN
DARMSTADT
NEUTRAL ZONE
COBLENZ
RHINE
MAYENCE
FRANKFORT
HESSE
BAVARIA
BELGIUM
LUXEMBURG
GERMANY
FRANCE
RHEIMS
VERDUN
METZ
NANCY
STRASSBURG
MANNHEIM
WURTTEMBERG
BELFORT
SWITZERLAND
Zurich

Courtesy of the New York *Times*.

THE ALLIED WATCH ON THE RHINE.

On November 11, 1918, Germany signed an armistice the terms of which were the most severe ever imposed on a first-class power. The map indicates the forced German retirement to the line of dashes bounding the neutral zone established on the right bank of the Rhine. The solid black line on the extreme left indicates the battle line running from Holland to Switzerland when the fighting stopped. The horizontal shading shows the small area of French territory then in German hands. The perpendicular shading is Rhenish Prussia.



THE RIGHT HONORABLE DAVID LLOYD GEORGE
British Premier, who headed the coalition cabinet which carried England through the war to victory.

Hussar pacing the bridge over the Rhine as a guard that first day was spoken to by several people, one of whom said in excellent English: "So you have wound up as the Watch on the Rhine!"

British cavalry crossed the Rhine to Cologne on December 14th and went beyond to take possession of the bridgeheads. Lancers, dragoon guards and hussars in steel helmets and with them horse artillery passed in a procession which occupied two hours, while, during the whole period, the gallant old white-haired, white-moustached commander of the Second British Army, General Sir Herbert Plumer, stood in the midst of his generals and staff officers with his hand at the salute. The band close by played "Rule Britannia," and then swung into one of the favorite songs of the army, "It's a Long, Long Trail." The British, after a march of one hundred and sixty miles, had at last arrived at that river so sacred to the Germans and which had seemed to our soldiers for several long years more difficult to reach than heaven itself. They occupied two thousand five hundred square miles of territory.

Martial law was proclaimed in Cologne on December 12th. Among the regulations particularly disliked by the Germans were those which forbade residents to leave their homes after 7 P. M. or before 6 A. M., and made all males salute British officers, and the playing of the British National Anthem by removing their hats. The other regulations were such as to protect the army of occupation from annoyance and to keep the civilian population peaceable.

THE BELGIAN ARMY

On November 22d the gallant King of the Belgians, with his equally gallant Queen, rode into his capital amid intense enthusiasm. It was a wonderful picture. People swarmed everywhere; perched on windows, ladders, posts and house-tops, they jammed the route of the procession and cheered deliriously. Not a word could be heard either when the burgomaster read his speech of welcome at the Flanders gate, or when the King replied, so thunderous was the roar of the multitude. And when the procession passed through the streets brilliant with flags and other decorations the roar of welcome seemed to increase while flowers fell like rain about the royal pair and their children following on horseback.

By December 18th the Belgians, having marched one hundred and sixty miles, had occupied and organized their area in Rhenish Prussia of seven hundred square miles.

THE FRENCH ARMY

The enthusiastic welcome accorded Marshal Pétain, attended by Generals Fayolle and Gouraud, on November 25th upon their entry into Strasbourg, dispelled any doubts as to the delight of Alsatians at being French once more. The joy of the people and their enthusiastic plaudits for the armies of Republican France was the reward of the French poilus and their generals. On the steps of the recent Imperial Palace were Pétain, Castelnau, Fayolle and Maistre, all three commanders of army groups, while several hundred staff officers were at the foot of the steps and on either side of the march past of the chasseurs, zouaves, dragoons, artillerymen, tankmen, tirailleurs, pioneers and machine-gunners.

Alsace-Lorraine had been taken by Frenchmen once more; the bitter memory of 1870 had been avenged; the dream of nearly fifty years had been realized.

By the 3d the Tenth French Army had occupied the Valley of the Sarre and a week later General Mangin took possession of the bridgehead at Mainz.

There was no excitement, no resistance or evidence of hostile feeling towards the French. Everywhere the people instinctively made way for the uniforms, having been so drilled to consider the soldier superior to the civilian that they automatically paid the same respect to the troops of the enemy. The French came as victors over a hated foe and naturally expected some appearance of hostility. Instead they found a submission almost servile of a people that had been beaten to the ground and instead of adopting the arrogant attitude, which would have been that of the Germans had conditions been reversed, they adopted, almost despite themselves, the rôle of benefactor. It was a fine proof of the nobility of the French character as compared with that of the German. As the Americans, British and Belgians found, there did not seem to be any lack of food, but there was marked evidence that the well-to-do had been able to obtain plenty when the poorer classes had been unable to do so. Restrictions which had pressed heavily upon the poor had scarcely affected the rich and were evidently one of the widespread causes of social discontent in Germany.

The Second French Army, under General Hirschauer, had by November 25th taken up its allotted posts along the Rhine in Alsace.

THE AMERICAN ARMY

The Third American Army began its forward march on November 17th, and by the 23d were almost through the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. Owing to the slowness of the enemy march the American army was compelled to slow down and only entered the Prussian province on December 1st. After crossing the Sauer and Moselle Rivers, it spread out on a front of sixty miles and on December 11th the American army completed its march to the Rhine and established its bridgehead on December 13th in a semicircle of eighteen miles diameter. There were no cheers, smiles or flags in Germany for these men who had come more than 3,000 miles overseas to help destroy militarism for all time.

CARRYING OUT THE TERMS OF THE ARMISTICE

As we have seen, the German High Sea Fleet and the German submarines had been surrendered to the British Admiral Beatty. The allied armies were also marching toward the Rhine to occupy both banks of that famous river.

The day before Germany signed the armistice the first British battleship, followed by a French destroyer, had anchored in the Golden Horn off Constantinople. On November 9th British troops had taken possession of the forts of Gallipoli, so pregnant with memories of the fatal summer of 1915. By the end of the first week in December a military administration under the direction of the British vice and rear admirals was in full running order in Constantinople. Two weeks later, on November 26th, an allied naval squadron passed through the Black Sea and took possession of the Russian ships at Sebastopol which had been surrendered to the Germans by the Bolsheviki.

Von Mackensen's army of 170,000 men in Rumania, while attempting to pass through Hungary to Germany, was interned on November 30th on the demand of the French authorities.

In the Italian area the Austro-Hungarian authorities had completed the terms of the armistice in so far as evacuation of territory was concerned and Italy was in full possession of the terrain to be occupied by her, pending the signing of the Peace Treaty and the inclusion in that of the Treaty of London.

Though the troops of occupation made no attempt to set up civil governments the Italian population in Gorizia, Trent and Trieste attempted to do so. Immediate conflict with Jugo-Slavs took place and at Fiume and Pola an unfortunate situation developed. Fiume was outside the territory of evacuation but had a predominating Italian population and an Italian municipal council. Armed Jugo-Slavs entered the town, forced the authorities to take down the Italian flag and substitute that of the Jugo-Slavs. Italians celebrating the victory of their armies were shot and terrorized until the Italian General Diaz ordered Fiume to be taken and his countrymen relieved.

THE SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN FLEET

When the German envoys were notified of the naval conditions of the armistice by Admiral Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, the Admiralty representative is said to have replied to the Germans in terms which adequately showed the relative conditions of the two fleets.

"It is inadmissible," the Germans protested, "that our fleet should be given up without having been beaten."

To which Admiral Wemyss retorted: "It only had to come out!"

The naval terms were of necessity accepted by Germany and a date and place arranged for the surrender of Germany's ships.

The annals of naval warfare hold no parallel to the surrender of the German fleet; nothing so humiliating has ever been seen.

On the night before the surrender the British Grand Fleet lay at its mooring in the Firth of the Forth. Among them was a French armoured cruiser and two destroyers, and five American dreadnoughts. All through the night the flagship was in touch with the German fleet steaming towards the place of rendezvous. At 2 A. M. the German fleet was seventy-two miles out and proceeding at a speed of twelve knots an hour.

At 4 A. M. on November 21st, 1918, the first battle squadron, led by the *Revenge*, put to sea with the *Queen Elizabeth* bringing up the rear. One by one the black silhouettes, canopied in smoke, followed and at daybreak the Grand Fleet, in two long columns, was at sea moving towards the on-coming enemy fleet. About 9.30 a sausage balloon, towed by the *Cardiff*, came into view.

Then there emerged from the murk about three miles away the first of the German ships. The British fleet then wheeled by squadrons back on its own track on both sides of the Germans so as to be ready to escort them to their anchorage.

It was the dawn of Der Tag—The Day when the German fleet was to meet the British. But how different from that which millions of Germans had visualized when they toasted Der Tag in heady cups of potent liquor! It was another Trafalgar—a bloodless one—in which a nation had her sea power completely annihilated without having fired a shot.

Forty-seven allied battleships and battle cruisers, thirty-five cruisers and two hundred destroyers, with one hundred thousand personnel, waited to receive the capitulation of thirteen German battleships and battle cruisers, six cruisers and forty-nine destroyers, manned by seventeen thousand officers and men.

First the great German battle cruisers, headed by the *Seydlitz*, and followed by the *Moltke*, *Hindenburg*, *Derflinger* and *Von der Tann* passed down the somber lines of the allied fleets. The German ships, led by the little cruiser *Cardiff*, and with a British naval airship flying overhead, slipped by with their guns trained fore and aft according to Admiral Beatty's orders. The battle stations on the British vessels were manned with gun crews, a sad reflection upon the German reputation for honour. No chances were being taken.

Behind these came the German dreadnoughts, cruisers and destroyers, escorted and completely covered by British destroyers. Flotilla after flotilla, stretching away into the haze out of sight, moved forward towards the anchorage appointed for the German ships at May Island in the Firth of Forth, guarded by the British Grand Fleet. The low mist obscured and blurred the ships and robbed the pageant of some of its splendour yet it seemed peculiarly fitting that the surrender should have taken place under the typical weather conditions of the North Sea endured by the British seamen for four long years.

As the German ships came to anchor they were surrounded by their British warders while the main body of the Grand Fleet made its way back to the stations from which it had started.

There had never been a naval surrender in history like it. Under similar circumstances the fleets of France, Russia and Spain had come out and with the prospect of certain doom fought their ships to the end and gone down fighting. This was a day of humiliation even to the British and American sailors and there was little rejoicing at the ignominious end of a fleet and a profession similar to their own. Every sailor felt compromised by the humiliating action of the parvenu fleet which two years before had put up only a half-hearted fight and then fled to the shelter of its harbours, where it had remained till the day it yielded. Had the ships been scuttled or blown up our sailors would have felt some admiration for the pride that was responsible for such action. But there were no sea traditions in the German navy. The German as always was logical and probably agreed that it was no use to be foolish and fight a losing battle or destroy the ships because it wouldn't help them. Therefore he chose to give them up.

An hour before noon Admiral Beatty signalled to the fleet: "The German flag will be hauled down at sunset to-day. It will not be hoisted again without permission." All the while the German flags were flying on the main-tops of the seventy-one German vessels lying at anchor. On the *Queen Elizabeth* the men assembled aft at 4 o'clock thinking they would hear a speech from the commander-in-chief. Suddenly the bugle rang out "making sunset" and the crew, instantly turning, saluted the British flag, following this with deafening cheers for Admiral Beatty who acknowledged the tribute with the words: "Thank you. I always told you they would have to come out."

Then the German flag on the seventy-one German ships was hauled down.

On the first of December, the day after the Sixth American Battle Squadron was detached from the Grand Fleet, Admiral Beatty made a notable address of farewell on board the American battleship *New York*.

After thanking the American officers and men for their cooperation, Sir David remarked that both the British and Americans were disappointed at not having been able to meet the German fleet. He declared that the day the German fleet surrendered was a "pitiful day to see." He said he had always had misgivings that the Germans would never come out for a finish fight, and these misgivings had been strengthened by the coming of the American squadron.

"I could not let the Sixth Battle Squadron go without coming on board the *New York* and saying something of what I feel at this moment of your departure," said Sir David.

"What I say, I hope you will understand comes from the heart, not only my heart, but the hearts of your comrades of the Grand Fleet. . . . This support which you have shown is that of true comradeship, and in time of stress that is worth a very great deal. . . . I do not want to keep you here any longer, but want to congratulate you for having been present upon a day unsurpassed in the naval annals of the world.

"I know quite well that you, as well as your British comrades, were bitterly disappointed at not being able to give effect to that efficiency you have so well maintained. It was a most disappointing day. It was a pitiful day to see those great ships coming in like sheep being herded by dogs to their fold, without an effort on anybody's part, but it was a day everybody could be proud of.

"However, the disappointment that the Grand Fleet was unable to strike their blow for the freedom of the world is counteracted by the fact that it was their prestige alone that brought about this achievement.

"During the last twelve months you have been with us, we have learned to know each other very well. We have learned to respect each other. I want you to take back a message to the Atlantic fleet that you have left a very warm place in the hearts of the Grand Fleet which cannot be filled until you come back or send another squadron to represent you.

"I understand that you are now going to Portland, where you are to get leave. There is a duty to perform in bringing your President to these waters, and then you will return to your own shores. And I hope that in the sunshine which, Admiral Rodman tells me, always shines there, you will not forget your 'comrades of the mist' and your pleasant associations of the North Sea.

"I thank you again and again for the great part the Sixth Battle Squadron has played in bringing about the greatest naval victory in history. I hope you will give this message to your comrades: 'Come back soon.'

"Good-bye, and good luck!"

The surrender of the one hundred and twenty-nine German submarines was made to Commodore Sir Reginald Yorke Tyrwhitt at Harwich, beginning two days later. The U-boats arrived in batches of about twenty-five at a time. The actual business of accepting the submarines was carried out by officers and men of the British submarine service.

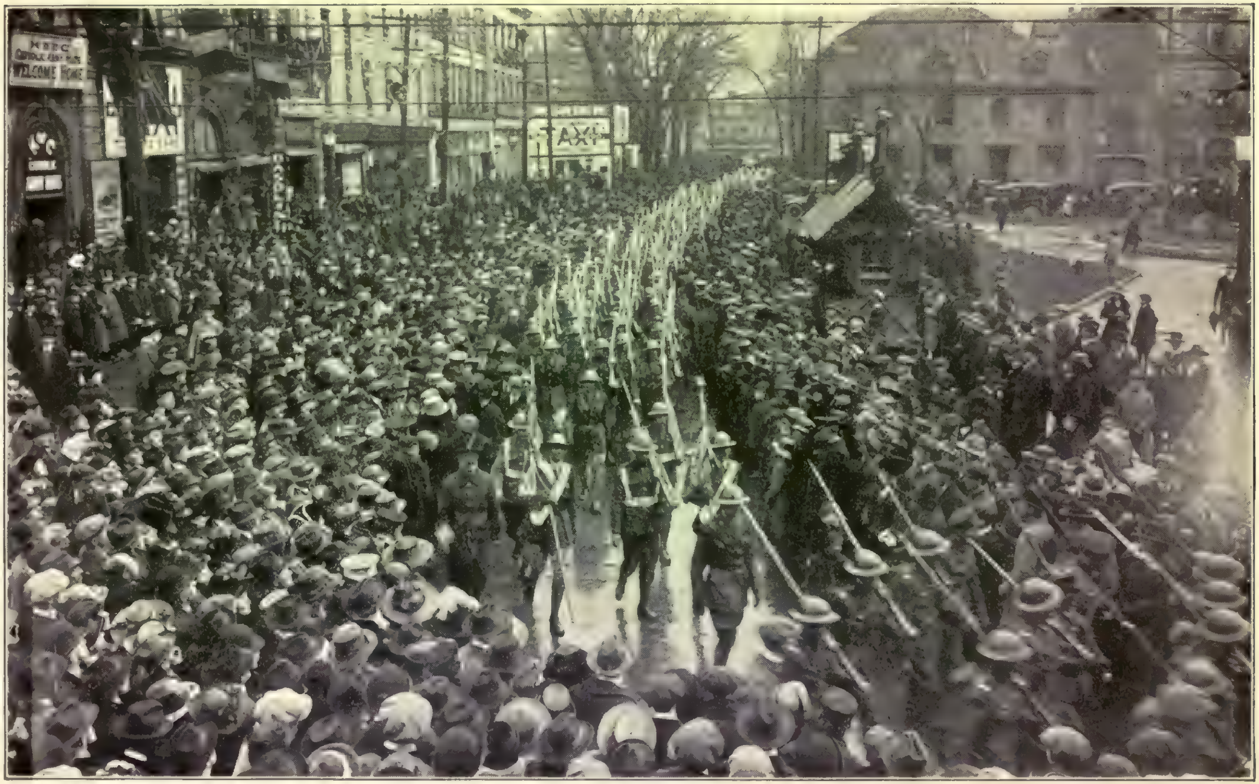
Among the first twenty-six U-boats surrendered was the U-135, a boat completed only three months before. She was two hundred and seventy-six feet long and had never been to sea until she came across the Channel to surrender. Among the last to be surrendered was U-153, commonly known as the *Deutschland,* so well known for her trip to America before the United States entered the war.

THE FALL OF KINGS AND EMPERORS

As the war drew to a close autocracies and bureaucracies, thrones and dynasties began to crumble. The first to go was, naturally, that of Russia. In 1906 the Duma had been formed. Up to that time the Russian bureaucracy had exercised absolute authority—in the name of the Czar. The Russian revolution, which had been aimed at this extraordinary organization rather than at the Czar himself, had formed Russia out of chaos. For the first time the countless millions of Jews, Armenians, Russians, Poles, Tartars, Calmuchs, Circassians, Letts, Georgians and Esthonians found an articulate national voice.

Ground down by the aristocracy, the Church and the bureaucracy with its gigantic organization of police, spies and soldiery, the Russian peasantry was the most miserable people on earth. The upper Russian classes were perhaps the best educated in Europe; the lower were the most ignorant and brutalized. Thousands of the educated, seeing what a terrible condition Russia was in, became ardent socialists and anarchists. In spite of all that the police could do revolutionary propaganda was broadcasted throughout the country so that the Russians become the most expert propagandists in the world.

The Poles wanted Home Rule; the Jews demanded equality; each race had its own needs, but one and all demanded freedom. Surcharged with hate, fearful hope and reckless idealism, Russia longed for the reforms that would enable men to be free, to obtain justice, to live happily. To these millions hungering and thirsting



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THE RETURN OF THE VICTORS

The 14th Battalion C.E.F., of Montreal, returned home Sunday, April 19, 1919, after going through a succession of battles from February, 1915, beginning with Neuve Chapelle and ending with Cambrai. The regiment is seen passing Phillips Square, on the way to demobilization barracks, marching with fixed bayonets, tantamount to receiving the freedom of the city.

for a new and righteous system of Government the Czar granted a means of expression in the Duma. But before the Duma met he promulgated what were called the Fundamental Laws of the Empire. It was not a constitution; it was not a charter. It was a declaration of what the Crown would keep and what it would yield.

In the Duma the people were given a voice but no power; the Czar and the Russian bureaucracy still remained omnipotent. It was little wonder then that the Russian people, when their opportunity came, and the soldiery in barracks, saturated with socialistic propaganda, refused to longer serve the bureaucratic element and fire upon the people, rose in red rebellion. Czar Nicholas, the House of Romanoff and the dynasty disappeared in the ruin and the first of the King row had fallen.

The story of the fall of the House of Hohenzollern would fill a volume. It is a far cry from the dream of world conquest, and, in shining helmet and imperial uniform, dictating terms of peace in the hall of Versailles, to the little house at Amerongen, Holland. Fearful of his own life, William, late Emperor of Germany, signed his abdication and fled across the border to await the judgment of the Allied Conference. His son, the late Crown Prince, the one time prince of swashbucklers, shorn of all reputation for ability or brains by his record during the war, had also fled to a modest exile at Wieringen.

Emperor Charles of Austria-Hungary abdicated and passed over into Switzerland, thereby bringing to an end the tragic house of the Hapsburgs.

At Zurich, in Switzerland, Constantine, the late King of Greece, found opportunity for reflection upon the folly of trying to steer Greece through the middle course of neutrality.

"Somewhere in Austria," Ferdinand, surnamed "The Fox," and one time King of Bulgaria, lived an unostentatious existence, after trying in vain to steer his ship of state before every favourable wind and yet avoid disaster.

Nicholas, formerly King of Montenegro, sojourned sadly in France without hope of again occupying the throne.

Louis, the erstwhile King of Bavaria, and Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, succeeded in successfully leaving their country and obtaining an exile in Switzerland.

CHAPTER XV

Canada's Official War Record*

In the early months of 1914 Canada, for practical purposes, had no army. There was a permanent force of about 3,000 men, with no reserve; its purpose was partly to provide garrisons for our few fortresses, and partly to train the militia. The latter was a lightly trained force, rather well organized for a defensive war on its own soil. The number trained in 1913 was about 60,000.

In the late summer and early autumn of 1914, the First Canadian division of 33,000 men was raised and sent across the Atlantic. It left Gaspé Bay on October 3d and, after nearly three months of additional training in England, landed in France, at Ste. Nazaire, on February 11, 1915. The Second division was formed immediately and landed in France on September 14th, when the Canadian Army Corps was formed. The formation of the Third division was authorized just before Christmas, 1915, and the division was in France early in 1916. The Fourth division joined the Canadian Corps in the middle of August, 1916. The Canadian cavalry brigade appeared in France in 1915.

The total number of men enlisted in Canada from the beginning of the war to November 15, 1918, was 595,441.

Obtained by voluntary enlistment		465,984
Drafted or reporting voluntarily after the Military Service Act came into force		83,355
Granted leave or discharge		24,933
Overseas Service other than C. E. F.:		
Royal air force	12,902	
Imperial motor transport	710	
Inland water transport	4,701	
Naval service	2,814	
Jewish Palestine draft	42	
		21,169
		595,441

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* Condensed account of Canada's part in the Great War, issued by the Department of Public Information, Ottawa, January, 1919.

The distribution of these men was as follows:

C. E. F. proceeded overseas	418,052
Enlisted for Royal air force, etc	21,169
On the strength of C. E. F. in Canada and St. Lucia, including those under training as overseas re-enforcements, Siberian Expeditionary Force, Canadian garrison regiment, military police, medical and administrative services, etc	36,533
On harvest leave without pay	15,405
Granted leave of absence without pay as compassionate and hardship cases	7,216
Number discharged in Canada who had not proceeded overseas for the following among other reasons, as below medical standard, absentees, aliens, to accept commissions, deaths, or transfer to British army and Royal air force	95,306
Included in enlistment returns, for whom discharge documents have not been received, or in some cases duplicate enlistments. This number is being adjusted as further records are received.	1,760
	595,441

In addition to the above, 14,590 British and allied reservists went from Canada to rejoin the colours in their own countries.

The movement overseas by years was as follows:

Before December 31, 1914	30,999
Calender year 1915	84,334
Calendar year 1916	165,553
Calendar year 1917	63,536
January 1 to November 15, 1918	73,630

On September 30, 1918, about 160,000 men were in France and about 116,000 men in England.

The total casualties sustained by the Canadian Expeditionary Force, and reported up to January 15, 1919, were 218,433.

	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Total.
Killed in action	1,844	33,840	35,684
Died of wounds	614	11,823	12,437
Died of disease	227	3,830	4,057
Wounded	7,133	148,706	155,839
Prisoners of war	....	.....	3,049
Presumed dead	142	4,540	4,682
Missing	37	361	398
Deaths in Canada	....	....	2,287
Total			218,433
Before December 31, 1915			14,500

By periods the casualties were (in approximate figures):

Calendar year 1916	56,500
Calendar year 1917	74,500
Calendar year 1918	73,000

HONOURS TO CANADIAN SOLDIERS

The following are the honours granted to members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force up to December 20, 1918:

Victoria Cross	53
Distinguished Service Order	513
First Bar to Distinguished Service Order	41
Second Bar to Distinguished Service Order	6
Military Cross	1,882
Bar to Military Cross	99
Distinguished Conduct Medal	1,186
Bar to Distinguished Conduct Medal	16
Military Medal	6,697
First Bar to Military Medal	271
Second Bar to Military Medal	10
Meritorious Service Medal	430
Mentioned in Despatches	3,333
Royal Red Cross	192
Other British Honours	226

Foreign Decorations—
French, 410; Belgian, 7.
Serbian, 7; Italian, 28.
Montenegrin, 8; Russian, 159.

THE CANADIAN FORCE AT THE FRONT

The distribution of the Canadian troops in France and Belgium on September 30, 1918, was as follows:

The Canadian Army Corps, forming part of the first British army, consisted of four divisions and corps troops. Each division consisted of three infantry brigades, each of which was made up of four battalions of infantry and one trench mortar battery, and the following divisional troops: Artillery—two brigades, two medium and one heavy trench mortar batteries, and a divisional ammunition column; one battalion of the machine gun corps; Engineers—three engineer battalions, one pontoon bridging transport unit, and one divisional employment company; divisional train of four companies; Medical Services—three field ambulances, one sanitary section and one mobile veterinary section; divisional signals of four sections, one at divisional headquarters and one with each brigade.

The corps troops were as follows:

Corps Artillery—Three brigades of garrison artillery containing twelve siege batteries and two heavy batteries, one anti-aircraft battery of five sections, three brigades of field artillery, two medium and one heavy trench mortar batteries, one divisional artillery ammunition column and two motor machine gun brigades.

Corps Engineers—Pontoon bridging unit, five army troop companies, an anti-aircraft searchlight company and corps survey section, two tramway companies.

Corps Medical Services—One field ambulance, one sanitary section, the dental laboratory and the veterinary evacuating station.

Corps Signaling Services—The corps signal company, two motor air line sections, four cable sections, four brigade signal subsections and one C. D. A. brigade detachment.

Army Service Corps—Headquarters mechanical transport column, seven mechanical transport companies, one divisional artillery mechanical transport detachment, one artillery brigade section and one divisional train detachment.

Ordnance Services—Three ordnance mobile workshops.

Miscellaneous—Infantry school, machine gun school, Lewis gun school, signal school, gas service school, instructors' pool, gymnastic staff, Canadian records list, Y. M. C. A. services, corps military police and two railhead army postoffices.

Labour Services—Labour group headquarters, four labour companies, a pontoon bridging officers' establishment and five Canadian area employment companies.

Each division contained 19,000 to 20,000 troops, and there were about 10,000 corps troops, making about 90,000 men in the corps.

The Canadian cavalry brigade formed part of the Third British cavalry division belonging to the third army and consisted of three cavalry regiments, a machine gun squadron, the royal Canadian horse artillery, a signal troop, a field ambulance and a mobile veterinary section. There were about 3,000 men in the brigade, which was part of the third army.

The following Canadian units, separate from the Canadian Corps, were attached to the five British armies:

First Army—Two casualty clearing stations, one sanitary section, one railroad supply detachment and two battalions of railway troops.

Second Army—One casualty clearing station, one advance depot medical stores, two battalions of railway troops, two auxiliary horse transport companies, one field butchery, two depot units of supply, a railhead supply detachment and a tunneling company.

Third Army—One casualty clearing station, one railhead supply detachment, three battalions of railway troops and the overseas railway construction corps.

Fourth Army—One medical corps mobile laboratory, four battalions of railway troops, one light railway operating company and one broad-gauge operating company.

Fifth Army—One battalion of railway troops.

On the line of communications and attached to British general headquarters were the following: Thirteen depot units of supply, four field bakeries and two field butcheries, which were distributed at Boulogne, Calais and Dieppe; six general hospitals and six stationary hospitals, which were at eight different places; the general base depot, the infantry base depot, the machine-gun base depot, the labour pool, the report centre, the command pay office, the dental store, two field auxiliary postoffices, the base postoffice, one veterinary hospital, one battalion of railway troops, one wagon erecting company and one engine crew company.

The following troops of the Canadian forestry corps were distributed at eleven places in France: Sixty-three forestry companies, five district workshops, one construction company, one technical warehouse, one forestry hospital and two detention hospitals.

There were altogether about 160,000 Canadians serving in France on September 30, 1918.

The Canadian Army Corps is commanded by Lieutenant-General Sir Arthur Currie, with the following divisional commanders: First division, Major-General A. C. MacDonell; Second division, Major-General Sir H. E. Burstall; Third division, Major-General F. O. W. Loomis; Fourth division, Major-General Sir D. Watson.

OPERATIONS

The following summary gives only the more notable engagements in which the Canadian troops fought. In 1915 the First division greatly distinguished itself in the second battle of Ypres, on April 22d, and again at Festubert and Givenchy, in May and June. In 1916 the Canadians, now forming three divisions, were very heavily engaged at St. Eloi in April, and at Sanctuary Wood and Hooge in June. In September, October and November the four Canadian divisions fought in the battle of the Somme, especially distinguishing themselves at Courcelette, Mouquet Farm, and the Kenora, Regina and Desire trenches.

In 1917, the Canadian troops bore the largest part in the taking of Vimy Ridge (April 9th) and of Arleux and Fresnoy (April 28th and May 3d), and fought with great success in the advance on Lens and the taking of Hill 70 in August. They were again heavily engaged in the fighting round Passchendaele in October and November, capturing all their objectives in spite of severe losses.

In 1918 the Canadian cavalry, motor machine guns and railway troops were active in the resistance to the German advance in March. The Canadian Corps was in the centre of the British front in the second battle of Amiens, August 8–17th, advancing 14,000 yards on the first day, the deepest advance made in one day during the war. In the battle of Arras, at the beginning of September, the Canadians played an important part in the breaking of the Queant-Drocourt line, a part of the Hindenburg system. The Canadian casualties in these two actions were serious but less than the number of prisoners taken.

The battle of Cambrai began on September 27th, and on October 9th the Canadians, after heavy losses, took Cambrai and made large captures of men and material. In the final stage of the fighting Denain was taken by the Canadians on October 20th, Valenciennes on November 2d and Mons at 4 A. M. on November 11th, on which day the armistice came into force, at 11 A. M.

The Canadian troops captured 45,000 prisoners, 850 artillery guns and 4,200 machine guns, recaptured 130 towns and villages, and liberated 310,000 French and Belgian civilians.

Canadian units also served in Palestine, Macedonia and Russia.

THE CAVALRY BRIGADE

The Canadian cavalry fought, for the most part, separately from the Canadian Army Corps. They distinguished themselves in

March, 1917, by the capture of six villages in two days, and in December gave valuable help in the attack on Villers-Cuislains. In the German offensive of March and April, 1918, the Canadian cavalry brigade was actively engaged and suffered heavy casualties at Bois Moreuil, Rifle Wood and elsewhere. The brigade fought as part of the Canadian Corps in the second battle of Amiens and, in the great advance at the end of the fighting, captured the town of Le Cateau on October 9th.

Canadian railway units were attached to all the British armies. Canadian railway troops were responsible for the whole of the construction of light railways and of sixty per cent of the standard-gauge railways in the area occupied by the British forces.

In addition to the units of the Canadian forestry corps serving in France and mentioned above, a large number of Canadians were engaged in Great Britain in cutting down and milling timber.

ARMY MEDICAL CORPS

During the war 1,617 medical officers, 2,002 nursing sisters and 12,382 other ranks of the Canadian army medical corps went overseas from Canada. There were in Canada at the end of the war 913 medical officers, 527 nursing sisters, 182 V. A. D. nurses, and 4,012 other ranks.

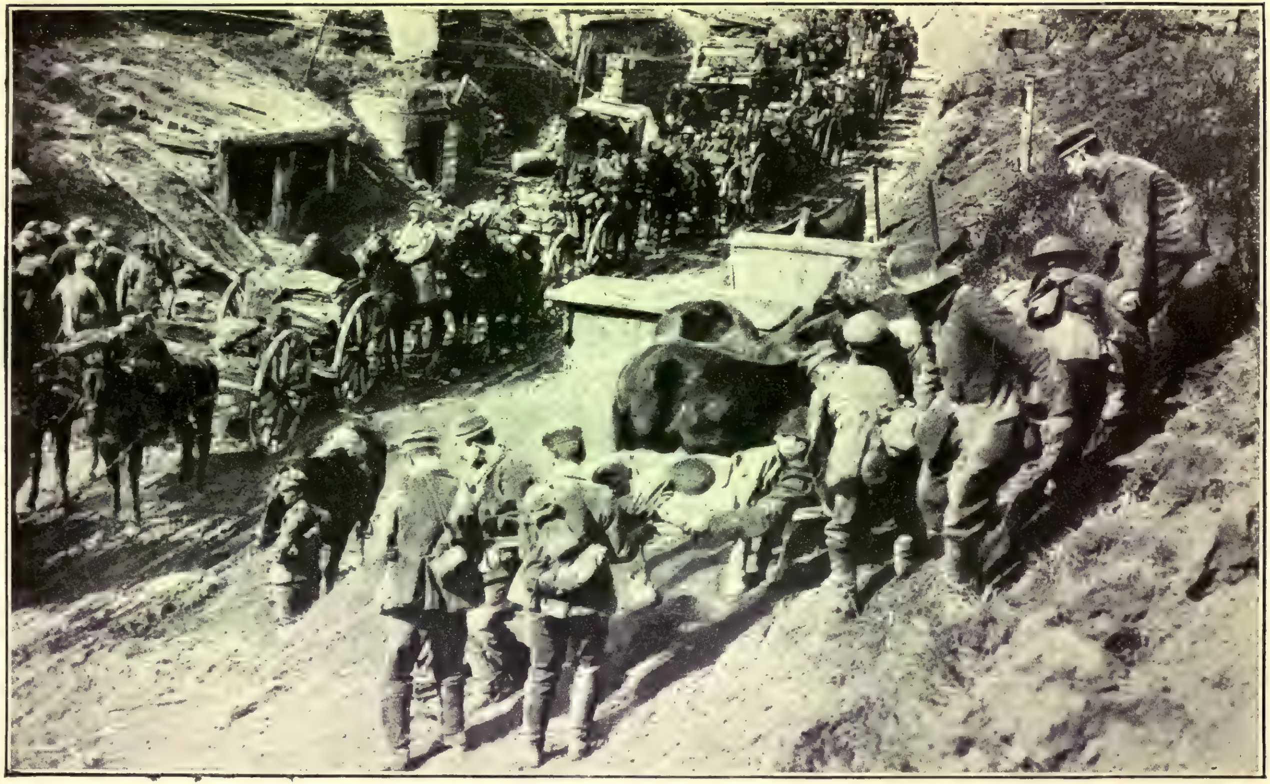
The medical corps maintained in France 6 general hospitals, 6 stationary hospitals, 6 casualty clearing stations and 13 field ambulances, and in England 9 active treatment hospitals, 5 special hospitals, 5 convalescent hospitals and a special sanatorium. In Canada there are 65 military hospitals with 11,786 beds.

Some 22,300 patients were brought back to Canada in 1917 and 1918 on 35 passages of hospital ships. On 27 of these passages the C. A. M. C. provided the staffs of the ships. The *Llandovery Castle* was sunk by a submarine while returning to England.

About 12,000 troops have been required in Canada for home defence—as garrisons for fortresses and guards for internment camps, canals, etc. Canada has also furnished a garrison for the important military post of St. Lucia, in the West Indies.

IMPERIAL SERVICES

Twelve thousand nine hundred and two Canadians have joined the Royal air force and its predecessors the Royal naval air service



AFTER THE BATTLE

Canadian transport thronging a sunken road just captured from the Germans. On the left are German dugouts, and on the right are German prisoners employed in bringing in our wounded.

and the Royal flying corps. In addition, a number of Americans have been trained in Canada by the instructional staff of the Royal air force.

Some 4,701 men have been furnished from Canada for the imperial service known as the inland waterways and docks. About 710 Canadians have joined the imperial motor transport service, and several hundred Canadians, mostly from the universities, have received commissions in the British army. Canada has also furnished several hundred doctors and veterinarians, and about two hundred nurses to the British army.

Some two hundred Canadian officers have been lent, as instructors, to the United States.

Several thousands of Poles, Serbians and Montenegrins have been enlisted in Canada for service with their own countrymen.

Military Service Act.—Until the winter of 1917–18 the Canadian Expeditionary Force was recruited by voluntary enlistment. During the winter the Military Service Act came into operation, and after this time 83,355 recruits were obtained for the force. These were partly men who were drafted and partly men, in the classes called out, who reported voluntarily.

The enforcement of the act was put in the hands of a special force of Dominion police, which later became the Canadian Military Police Corps. This body was assisted, in certain districts, by the Royal Northwest Mounted Police.

The number of cases investigated was 269,121, but as the men concerned moved from one place to another, it often occurred that one man was the subject of several investigations. Among these were: 18,824 defaulters, who failed to register; 9,454 absentees, who failed to report when ordered; and 2,304 deserters.

Royal Military College.—The Royal Military College has a very distinguished record in connection with the war. Of the 914 graduates and ex-cadets who have served, 353 were granted commissions direct from the college, and 43 enlisted with a view to obtaining commissions; 138 ex-cadets have been reported as killed in action, dead of wounds, or missing.

Ex-cadets of the college have won the following honours and decorations: 1 Victoria Cross, 106 Distinguished Service Orders, 109 Military Crosses, 2 Distinguished Flying Crosses, 62 other British decorations, 42 foreign decorations.

Three Canadian and one Australian division have been commanded by graduates of the college. The graduates who have served in the war include one lieutenant-general, eight major-generals, and twenty-six brigadier-generals. The college has had between 1,300 and 1,400 cadets on its rolls since its foundation.

THE NAVAL SERVICE

Cruisers.—At the outbreak of war in 1914 the Canadian Government possessed only two naval vessels, the *Niobe,* a cruiser of 11,000 tons displacement, with a main armament of sixteen 6-inch guns, stationed at Halifax, and the *Rainbow,* a small cruiser of 3,600 tons displacement, armed with two 6-inch, six 4.7-inch and four 12-pounder guns, stationed at Esquimalt, on the Pacific. The *Rainbow,* which was ready for sea, patrolled, with other ships on the Pacific station, as far south as Panama, and captured several ships carrying contraband of war. After the entry of the United States into the war, she became depot ship on the Pacific Coast. The *Niobe* was made ready for sea in September, 1914, and remained in commission one year, during which she steamed over 30,000 miles on patrol duty. She afterwards became depot ship at Halifax.

Smaller Vessels.—At the beginning of hostilities, various small craft were taken over by the Naval Department from the Departments of Marine and of Customs, and were armed and manned from the R. C. N. V. R. for the performance of patrol duties off the Atlantic Coast. Two submarines, which were bought just before the declaration of war, patrolled the approaches to Victoria and Vancouver and helped in keeping Admiral von Spee's squadron away from the Pacific ports. H. M. sloop *Shearwater* was taken into the Canadian service as mother ship to these submarines and, in the summer of 1917, these three vessels went, by way of Panama Canal, to Halifax.

Trawlers and Drifters.—A patrol and mine-sweeping service has been carried on since the outbreak of war. Early in 1917 the Department of Naval Service undertook to have sixty trawlers and one hundred drifters built in Canada for the Imperial Government. These vessels were built at various places on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes; many of them were in service in Canadian and European waters in the year 1917, and all were in service in 1918.

The area patrolled under the department stretched from the Straits of Belle Isle to the Bay of Fundy, and from Quebec to east of the Virgin Rocks. Within this area the department had control of patrols, convoys, mine-sweeping, the protection of fishing fleets, etc. Only one large vessel was lost by enemy attack in this area.

At the date of the armistice the vessels in the Canadian Naval Service were as follows:

On the Pacific.—H. M. C. S. *Rainbow*, depot and training ship; H. M. S. *Algerine*, sloop; auxiliary patrol ship *Malaspina;* several motor launches for harbour defence.

On the Atlantic.—H. M. C. S. *Niobe*, depot and training ship; H. M. C. S. *Shearwater*, submarine depot ship, and two submarines; H. M. C. S. *Grilse*, torpedo-boat destroyer; nine auxiliary patrol ships, forty-seven armed trawlers, fifty-eight armed drifters, eleven armed mine-sweepers and tugs, and a large flotilla of motor launches.

Personnel.—The crews of these vessels consisted of men from all parts of Canada, principally members of the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve. At the date of the armistice the personnel of the service was:

Officers and men of the Royal Canadian Navy, 749.

Officers and men of the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve, 4,374.

Naval College.—Canada is fortunate in the possession of a small but excellent naval college. More than fifty officers who passed out of the college as cadets are serving in either the Imperial or Canadian navy. Many of them have gained distinction, and four lost their lives in the battle of Coronel.

Canadians in the Imperial Naval Forces.—In addition to the men serving on Canadian vessels, over 1,700 men have been recruited in Canada for the Imperial navy, and are on service in European waters; seventy-three surgeon probationers and a number of hydrographic survey officers have been sent from Canada, and 580 Canadians were enrolled as probationary flight lieutenants in the Royal Naval Air Service, before recruiting for the Royal air force began in Canada. More than five hundred Canadians holding commissions in the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve are in British Auxiliary Patrol and similar services.

Naval Air Service.—The Royal Canadian Naval Air Service was established in the summer of 1918, with stations at Halifax and North Sydney. It has co-operated with the United States Naval Aviation Corps in patrolling the coast and escorting convoys through the danger zone.

Wireless Service.—The Canadian Radiotelegraph Service controls about two hundred stations ashore and afloat. Several new stations have been erected or taken over by the Department of Naval Service and there is now an unbroken chain of radio communication from St. John's, Newfoundland, to Demerara. The department opened a training school for wireless operators, from which about two hundred men have been sent out for service in all parts of the world.

Dockyards.—Important refitting, repairing, and supply work has been done by the Canadian dockyards. Large refits of Imperial and other ships were made at Esquimalt, including H. M. S. *Kent*, after the battle of the Falkland Islands, and the Japanese battleship *Asama*, after grounding on the coast of lower California. Several large cruisers were refitted at Halifax and Montreal. Other work included the defensive armament of merchant ships, the refitting of transports for troops, horses, and special cargo, and the loading and securing on ships' decks of six hundred launches, tugs, etc., of large size.

The Halifax dockyard was seriously damaged by the explosion in the harbour on December 6, 1917, but immediate steps were taken to enable the services of the yard to be carried on.

Stores.—The Canadian Naval Service provided supplies for the ships of the Royal Canadian Navy and for a number of Imperial and allied ships in Canadian waters, as well as many of the requirements of H. M. dockyards at Bermuda and Hong Kong. Large supplies were shipped from Halifax dockyard for provisioning the fleets in European waters. A large coaling depot was established at Sydney for the use of patrolling vessels and of all convoys leaving the St. Lawrence.

The growth of the naval service since the outbreak of war is shown by the increase in the quantities of stores purchased in the last three fiscal years:

1915–16	$2,500,000
1916–17	7,500,000
1917–18	10,000,000

Overseas Transport.—By arrangement with the Admiralty and the British Ministry of Shipping, the Director of Overseas Transport appointed by the Canadian Government controlled the inland traffic, by rail or otherwise, in food supplies and munitions for transport overseas, the reception and storage at ports of shipment, the allocation of cargo and its stowage on board the ships.

The average monthly export was: in 1915, 50,000 tons; in 1916, 170,000 tons; in 1917, 331,000 tons; and in 1918 (to December 1), 387,000 tons. From January 1, 1915, to December 1, 1918, over 11,250,000 tons of freight were shipped.

SHIPBUILDING

There were 103 steel and wooden ships with a total tonnage of 367,367, built in Canada during the war.

A large Government shipbuilding programme is being carried out by the Department of Marine. Contracts have been authorized for 39 ships of 3,400 to 10,500 tons, having a total deadweight tonnage of 233,350. These ships are being, or to be, built at ten different Canadian shipyards.

The Department of Naval Service has had the following vessels built for various governments during the war:

For the Imperial Government.—Twelve submarines, 60 armed trawlers, 100 armed drifters, 550 coastal patrol motor boats, and 24 steel lighters for use in Mesopotamia.

For the French Government.—Six armed trawlers and 36 coastal patrol motor boats.

For the Italian Government.—Six submarines.

For the Russian Government.—One large armed ice-breaker and some submarines.

FINANCE

Government Loans.—The Canadian Government, since the commencement of the war, has issued domestic loans as follows:

	Amount of Loan	Number of Subscribers
1. 1915–1925, 5 per cent	$100,000,000	24,862
2. 1916–1931, 5 per cent	100,000,000	34,526
3. 1917–1937, 5 per cent	139,000,000	41,000
4. 1917–1937 (Victory Loan), 5½ per cent	398,000,000	820,035
5. 1918 (Second Victory Loan), 5½ per cent	660,000,000	1,067,879

In addition, War Savings Certificates to the amount of approximately $12,500,000, as well as a considerable amount of debenture stock, have been sold, bringing the Government's borrowings from the people of Canada since the beginning of the war to the total sum of $1,436,000,000, or in other words, $192 per capita of the population of the Dominion.

Advances Between the Dominion Government and Great Britain.—Since the outbreak of war to November 30, 1918, Canada has established credits on behalf of the Imperial Government to the amount of $709,000,000. Through these advances Great Britain was able to finance the purchase of foodstuffs, hay and other commodities and to carry on the operations of the Imperial Munitions Board in Canada.

In addition to the above, Canadian chartered banks have advanced to the Imperial Government through the medium of the Minister of Finance the sum of $200,000,000 for the purchase of munitions and wheat. This was made possible by the large savings deposits in Canadian banks, which from August, 1914, to October 31, 1918, despite the withdrawals for subscription to war loans, increased by $417,115,476.

On the other hand, Great Britain has made advances to the Dominion totalling $609,000,000. These credits were chiefly for the maintenance of the Canadian troops overseas.

Up to November 30, 1918, the total outlay for the war was approximately $1,068,606,527. This amount includes all expenditures in Canada, Great Britain and France, and is also inclusive of the upkeep of the troops overseas. The interest and pension payments attributable to the war amount for the entire war period to approximately $76,000,000. These have been provided from the Consolidated Revenue Fund.

Net Debt.—The net debt of Canada, which before the war stood at about $336,000,000, has now passed the billion-dollar mark, and on November 30, 1918, amounted to $1,307,429,661. The increase is almost entirely attributable to war expenditures.

WAR TAXATION

Tax on Luxuries.—Taxation on luxuries has been gradually introduced since the beginning of the war as it was justified by the financial condition of the country. Increased customs duties and higher rates of excise on certain commodities, including liquors and tobacco, imposed soon after the commencement of the war, were followed in 1915 by a war tax on transportation tickets, telegrams, money orders, cheques, letters, patent medicines, etc. In 1915 an increase of 7½ per cent ad valorem to the general tariff and 5 per cent ad valorem to the British preferential tariff was made on all commodities with the exception of certain foodstuffs, coal, harvesting machinery, fisheries equipment, etc.

Increase of Customs Duties.—In 1918 a special customs duty was imposed on tea and coffee and the excise on tobacco was increased. In addition, various other taxes were imposed or increased, and a special war excise tax was imposed on various articles, including automobiles, jewelry, etc.

Business Profits Tax.—Under the Business Profits War Tax Act, as at present amended, the Government, in the case of all businesses having a capital of $50,000 and over, takes 25 per cent of the net profits over 7 per cent and not exceeding 15 per cent, 50 per cent of the profits over 15 per cent and not exceeding 20 per cent, and 75 per cent of the profits beyond 20 per cent. In the case of businesses having a capital of $25,000 and under $50,000 the Government takes 25 per cent of all profits in excess of 10 per cent on the capital employed. Companies employing capital of less than $25,000 are exempted, with the exception of those dealing in munitions or war supplies.

Income Tax.—The Canadian income tax, which came into effect in the year 1918–19, is in many respects higher than that in force in the United States. The scale provides for the exemption of incomes, in the case of unmarried persons with an income of $1,000 and under, and in the case of married persons with an income of $2,000 and under. There is also provision for the exemption of $200 for each child.

Proceeds of Taxation, 1917–18.—During the last fiscal year the Dominion Government collected by way of war taxation $76,073,000.

WAR SAVINGS AND THRIFT STAMPS

The issue of $50,000,000 worth of War Savings Stamps was begun in the latter part of 1918, with the object of encouraging thrift and saving among the people of Canada. For a War Savings Stamp, the cost of which at the end of 1918 or the beginning of 1919 was $4, the Government will pay $5 in 1924. Thrift stamps, which cost 25 cents each, are a means of buying War Savings Stamps on the instalment plan.

GOLD SHIPMENTS

Reference should be made to the fact that since the outbreak of the war quantities of gold coin and gold bullion to the value of $1,300,000,000 have been received at Ottawa by the Department of Finance as trustee for the Imperial Government and the Bank of England. The heavy demand on the gold refinery at the Royal Mint, Ottawa, led to the construction (in eight weeks) of a second plant with a monthly output of a million ounces of fine gold. Through this extension this refinery has developed the largest capacity of any gold refinery in the world.

In addition to the above operations, certain parts for gun-sights were produced at the Royal Mint, Ottawa, for the Imperial Government. They consisted chiefly of eye-piece cells, and the total production up to December 20, 1918, of this equipment amounted to 31,587 parts.

MUNITIONS

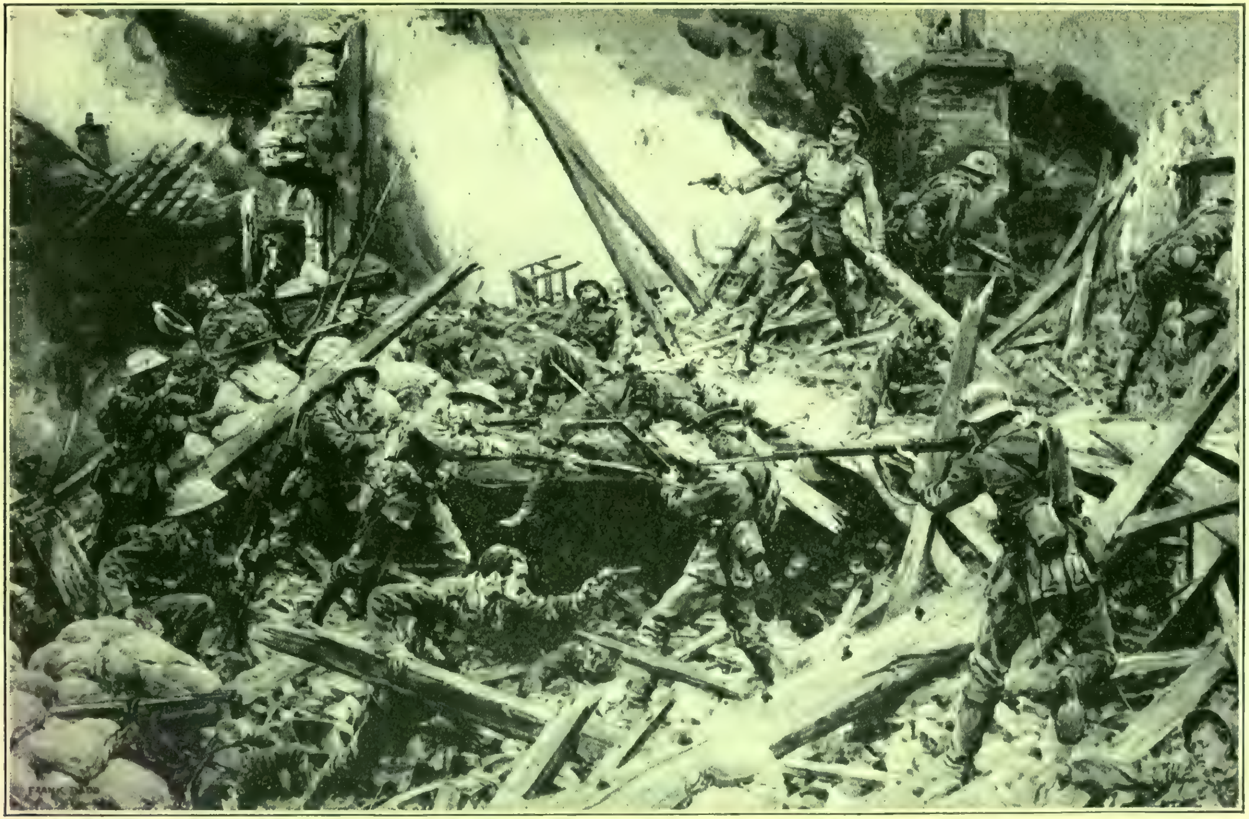
The following figures give some idea of what Canada has accomplished in the production of munitions of war:

VALUE OF MUNITIONS AND MATERIALS EXPORTED FROM CANADA

1914 to December 31	$28,164
1915 "	57,213,688
1916 "	296,505,257
1917 "	388,213,553
1918 "	260,711,751
	$1,002,672,413

QUANTITIES EXPORTED

Shells	65,343,647
Fuses	29,638,126
Fuse parts	16,174,073
Cartridge cases	48,627,673
Percussion primers	35,386,488
Exploder containers	13,285,000
Shell and adapter forgings	6,412,115



COLD STEEL FOR THE ENEMY AT MONCHY

Troops from Newfoundland participated in the capture of Monchy-le-Preux on April 11, 1917. First with rifle, then with the bayonet and the butt, and at last with fists, they annihilated the enemy.

QUANTITIES EXPORTED—CONTINUED

Explosives and Chemicals:	Pounds
T. N. T.	41,754,950
Cordite	28,542,157
Other	(more than) 41,000,000
Metals and Compounds:	
Steel bars	43,077,923
Zinc	35,412,413
Nickel	1,792,000
Other	(more than) 27,000,000
Lumber for Aeroplanes:	Feet
Spruce	16,289,227
Fir	6,801,324
Other Lumber:	
Douglas fir	11,530,315
Pine, various kinds and qualities	10,360,566
Spruce	8,345,675
Workers engaged in war contracts	200,000 to 300,000
Persons handling and transporting stores, about	50,000
Contractors in Canada for munitions, about	1,000

In the report issued by the Imperial War Cabinet for the year 1917, Canada's services to the empire in the production of munitions are referred to as follows:

> Canada's contribution during the last year had been very striking. Fifteen per cent of the total expenditure of the Ministry of Munitions in the last six months of the year was incurred in that country. She has manufactured nearly every type of shell from the 18-pounder to the 9.2-inch. In the case of the 18-pounder no less than 55 per cent of the output of shrapnel shells in the last six months came from Canada, and most of these were complete rounds of ammunition which went direct to France. Canada also contributed 42 per cent of the total 4.5-inch shells, 27 per cent of the 6-inch shells, 20 per cent of the 60-pounder H. E. shells, 15 per cent of the 8-inch and 16 per cent of the 9.2-inch.

FOOD CONTROL

The office of Food Controller was created in Canada in June, 1917. In February, 1918, the powers and duties of the controller were vested in the Canada Food Board, which was then established.

The function of the food board was, generally, to secure the largest possible supply of food to the fighting forces of the Allies and to the civil population in Europe by means of increased production and conservation of food in Canada.

Increased Production.—Early in 1918 steps were taken to add to the production of Canadian farms. Over 1,100 farm tractors were bought and resold to farmers at cost price.

The following figures show the increase of the acreage of the principal crops:

	1917-Acres	1918-Acres
Wheat	14,755,850	17,353,902
Oats	13,313,400	14,790,336
Barley	2,392,200	3,153,811
Rye	211,880	555,294
Mixed grains	497,326	1,068,120

These were much larger than the areas of the crops before the war.

The total value of all field crops in 1917 was $1,144,136,450, and in 1918, $1,337,350,870, an increase of 16.8 per cent. Both these values were higher than those of any preceding year.

The following are the quantities of wheat, flour and oatmeal exported from Canada between August 1, 1917, and July 31, 1918:

	Bushels
Wheat	118,579,601
Flour	11,257,942
Oatmeal	372,302

VOLUNTARY WAR ORGANIZATIONS

General Statistics.—The following is a summary of gifts for various war purposes from the Federal and Provincial Governments, from municipalities, societies, universities, business houses and other corporations, and from private individuals:

Canadian Patriotic Fund (to November 30, 1918)	$42,864,207
Manitoba Patriotic Fund (to March 31, 1918)	3,957,042
Canadian Red Cross Society (to December 7, 1918):	
Contribution in cash	7,771,083
Gifts in supplies (estimated)	13,500,000
British Red Cross Society (to December 31, 1917)	6,100,000
Belgian Relief Fund (to December 19, 1918):	
Contributions in cash	1,642,104
Gifts in supplies (estimated)	1,512,800

Contributions from Canada to Y. M. C. A. for Military Work	$4,574,821
Gifts from Dominion and Provincial Governments to Government of United Kingdom	5,469,319
To the above should be added miscellaneous gifts from various sources for many objects. These include contributions for the equipment and maintenance of hospitals overseas and in Canada, to the French, Serbian and Polish Relief Funds, to numerous associations for the supply of field comforts to troops overseas and for the care of returned soldiers. These contributions, together with other gifts for various patriotic purposes, on a conservative estimate amount to	8,000,000
Total	$95,391,376
The approximate total of voluntary contributions from Canada for war purposes is, therefore, over	95,000,000

Of the various war organizations working in Canada, or amongst Canadian troops overseas, the most extensive in their operations are the Canadian Patriotic Fund, the Canadian Red Cross Society, and the Military Branch of the Y. M. C. A.

Canadian Patriotic Fund.—The Canadian Patriotic Fund is a national organization (covering all the provinces except Manitoba, which for this purpose is organized separately), the object of which is to give assistance where necessary to the dependent relatives, in Canada, of allied soldiers and sailors on active service in the present war. The fund is administered locally through committees serving gratuitously. The committees act on general instructions from headquarters, and are given discretionary powers as regards the approval of applications and the amount of grants. The funds are raised by voluntary contribution. Since June, 1916, the expenditure in relief work of the Canadian Patriotic Fund has averaged about $900,000 a month. This sum has covered the assistance of from 50,000 to 60,000 families. The total has reached nearly $43,000,000.

Canadian Red Cross Society.—The Canadian Red Cross Society is organized in eight provincial and about 1,200 local branches. Its object is to furnish aid to sick and wounded soldiers as an auxiliary to the Army Medical Corps. The more important activities of the society include the supply of equipment for Canadian military hospitals, grants to British and other hospitals, care of Canadian prisoners of war, and the collection and shipment of supplies of various kinds, including clothing for the refugees being repatriated in the devastated areas of Europe. The society has collected $7,771,083 in money and gifts to the value of more than $13,500,000.

Y. M. C. A.—The Military Branch of the Y. M. C. A. carries on its work with the troops overseas in France and Germany, and in seventy-six centres in England. These include regular camps and units, base camps, convalescent camps and hospitals. In Canada there are thirty-eight centres of operation, including camps, barracks, Red Triangle Clubs, hospitals, naval stations and troop trains. There were in 1917, 133 secretaries on the overseas staff with honorary commission in the C. E. F. Of these, fifty received their pay and allowances from the Y. M. C. A., while the remainder were paid by the Government. In Canada, one hundred civilian secretaries are employed for military purposes by the association. More than $4,500,000 has been contributed for this work.

WOMEN'S WORK

Statistics, however complete, can give only an imperfect impression of the services which Canadian women have rendered during the war. The following are a few facts which bear upon this subject:

Nursing.—Women to the number of 2,400 have gone overseas in the C. E. F. and have served in England, France, Belgium, Egypt, Greece and Russia. They were posted for duty in base hospitals, clearing stations, ambulance trains and hospital ships. There are also 527 on duty in Canada.

The casualties suffered by nurses were:

Killed in France (in bombing raids)	4
Killed at sea (by submarines)	14
Died of disease	15
Died in Canada	6

The number of V. A. D.'s who have gone overseas is 342, who have served in hospitals in England and France.

The following decorations have been awarded to nursing sisters:

Military medal	4
Royal Red Cross, First Class	43
Royal Red Cross, Second Class	149

Many hundreds of Canadian women are serving in Canada as volunteer hospital probationers in military hospitals and in England under the Joint War Committee's Women's V. A. D. Department.

More than 1,000 women have been employed by the Royal Air Force in Canada on a wide range of duties, including motor transport work.

Between 5,000 and 6,000 women were employed in the Civil Service for the most part on work created by the war.

About 75,000 women gave their services to assist in the compilation of the National Register in June, 1918.

Women's Organizations.—Women's clubs and societies all through the country since the beginning of the war have very generally diverted their energies to special war work, and have been of the greatest service.

Women's War Conference.—A conference of about seventy-five representative women from all provinces of the dominion was called at Ottawa in February, 1918, on the invitation of the War Committee of the Cabinet. Those invited were asked to give special consideration to the relation of women to such matters as increased agricultural production, commercial and industrial occupations, the compilation of the National Register and the conservation of food.

The conference served a very useful purpose, particularly in the increased measure of co-operation which it made possible between the Government and women's organizations throughout the country.

Women's Franchise.—Reference should be made to the fact that by an Act of Parliament, 1918, Canadian women have received the Federal electoral franchise on the same basis as men.

WAR LIQUOR REGULATIONS

During 1917 and 1918 the Federal Government issued a series of regulations controlling the liquor traffic for the purpose of preventing waste, and for the promotion of thrift, the conservation of financial resources, and the increase of national efficiency.

In November, 1917, it was forbidden by the Dominion Government, as a war measure, to use foodstuffs in the distillation of liquors. In the same month the quantity of malt manufactured, and the quality of barley used in the manufacture of malt were both limited in the interest of food conservation.

Successive Orders in Council under the War Measures Act, 1914, were passed in December, 1917, and January, 1918, which prohibited the importation of intoxicating liquor into the dominion.

At the end of 1916 the sale of intoxicating liquor was prohibited by provincial statutes in all the provinces save Quebec. In this province a prohibition measure has been passed which is to come into effect on the 1st of May, 1919.

In order to bring about national prohibition it was necessary for the Federal Government to supplement provincial laws and prevent both the manufacture of intoxicating liquor in any province of the dominion and the traffic in this commodity between the provinces. This was done by an Order in Council passed in March, 1918, under the special powers conferred by the War Measures Act.

REHABILITATION OF RETURNED SOLDIERS

In February, 1918, a new Department of State was created, to be known as the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment.

The department has arranged, since the date of the armistice, for the distribution of questionnaire cards among the Canadian overseas forces, in order to ascertain the desires of the men with reference to the district to which they wish to be returned and the kind of work that they wish to take up.

Representatives of the departments overseas keep the soldiers informed as to the methods adopted in Canada to assist them back to civil life. In Canada, public education is being undertaken in order that employers and the public generally will know what is expected of them in the successful carrying out of the civil absorption of the 300,000 or 400,000 soldiers.

The Employment Scheme.—For the men who have not their old positions awaiting them, the Government is conducting a survey of industries, that is to say, employers are being asked to state periodically what vacancies exist in their organizations.

The Government has also made arrangements to connect the soldiers with vacant positions. There are provided, in addition to employment bureaus, several other public employment offices through which a man can secure work without paying any fee. These offices are being co-ordinated into one system under the guidance of the Repatriation Committee, and others will be established, so that in each military dispersal centre and in every town of 10,000 population or more, there will be a demobilization employment office.

Retraining.—Every man discharged from the Canadian Expeditionary Force who has received a disability which prevents him from following his previous occupation in civil life, is entitled to retraining, free of charge, in some trade or profession of his own choice in which his disability will not prove a handicap. During such period of retraining the Government provides for the maintenance of his family or dependents.

Retraining is carried on in universities, colleges, technical and agricultural schools throughout the dominion, with special equipment in six centres and practical training, under actual shop conditions in the plants of leading manufacturers, is given in conjunction with the theoretical work of the classes. At the end of September, 1918, men were being retrained in not less than 158 occupations.

Medical Care.—The care of invalided soldiers is divided roughly into two stages: (1) Before discharge, by the Department of Militia and Defence, (2) after discharge, by the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment, for life if necessary. For this purpose the department has established a permanent medical service.

These two stages dovetail in connection with:

(*a*) *Occupational Therapy.*—The Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment supplies the personnel and equipment for this work while soldier patients are still in military hospitals, the work being under the direction of the medical officer in charge of the hospital.

(*b*) *Orthopœdic Appliances.*—The Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment manufactures artificial limbs and furnishes major and minor orthopœdic appliances for all soldiers and ex-soldiers who are entitled to the same. These appliances are maintained in good repair during the life of the wearer. Orthopœdic fitting depots are maintained by the department for this purpose throughout the dominion.

The Medical Branch of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment has eight functions or duties:

1. Care of all cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. These cases

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are discharged from the army, as soon as diagnosed, for treatment under the department.

2. The care of the permanently insane, epileptics, and feebleminded.

3. The care of incurables and cases likely to be of long duration and requiring institutional treatment.

4. The manufacture and supply of orthopædic appliances, both major and minor.

5. The care of cases of recurrence of war disabilities.

6. Medical care of men undergoing industrial re-education.

7. Dental care of: (*a*) Ex-soldiers undergoing industrial reeducation; (*b*) cases in institutions under the control of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment; (*c*) defects of the teeth due to war service.

8. The care of out-patients, who are divided into two classes. Those in the first class are unable to work and are in receipt of full pay and allowances, but no pension is paid while they are under treatment. Their income is approximately that which they received while on military service. Those in the second class report periodically at clinics for treatment, their pensions are continued to them and they receive allowances in accordance with the amount of time lost when reporting.

PENSIONS

The Board of Pension Commissioners for Canada was constituted by Order in Council, dated June 3, 1916. The commission employs 875 people. Of these 624 are employed at the head office in Ottawa and 191 at the district offices; 749 are either returned soldiers or the dependents of soldiers still on service.

Seventeen district offices have been established in the larger centres of the dominion and have been found of great advantage. They afford the discharged men convenient bureaus of information where the pensions' regulations can be explained personally to them by officials of the commission.

Medical examiners are on the staff of each district office. They re-examine pensioners for continuance of pension, and when necessary for the adjustment of all complaints regarding awards.

Visitors also form part of the staff of each district office. Their duties include the paying of at least one visit annually to every pensioner. They investigate all cases of hardship and bring to the notice of the commission any circumstances in which the appointment of guardians or administrators might result in preventing an improper expenditure of pension moneys.

Disability Pensions.—Pensions are awarded, in accordance with the provisions of the regulations, for disabilities arising on service. These are divided into twenty classes according to the degree of the disability. In determining an award, no reference is made to occupation prior to enlistment. The disability is the decisive factor in every case.

No reduction in pension is made by reason of the pensioner's ability to earn or because of his actual earnings. He is pensioned because of the loss or lessening of a national function of the body. So long as this loss or lessening is present his pension continues. It is discontinued only when the disability has ceased.

Dependents' Pension.—Dependents, as designated by the regulations, of soldiers or sailors dying on service or as the result of injuries received or diseases contracted or aggravated on service are entitled to pensions.

The commission has exclusive jurisdiction over all matters relating to pensions' administration, as set forth in the regulations which are embodied in various Orders in Council. No appeals can be made from the decisions of the commission but every applicant may present his or her case to the commission either personally or by counsel.

The scale of Canadian war pensions is higher than that of any of the allied countries. It is as follows:

Private soldier for total disability	(per annum)	$600.00
Widows	(per annum)	480.00
Parents	(per annum)	480.00
Children	(per annum)	$96.00 to 144.00
Orphan children	(per annum)	192.00 to 288.00
Special allowances for helplessness, not to exceed	(per annum)	300.00

Pensions are being awarded at the rate of 137 daily.

The number and nature of and the annual liability for pensions, as at November 30, 1918, were as follows:

Disability pensions	38,767	$6,012,846
Dependents	14,719	7,433,346
Totals	53,486	$13,446,192

LAND SETTLEMENT

The Soldier Settlement Board.—The Soldier Settlement Act of 1917 makes provision for helping soldiers and sailors to settle on the land and for providing them with money with which to start farming. A Soldier Settlement Board has been established to administer the act. The board has its head office at Ottawa and branch offices at Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, Regina, Edmonton, and Victoria, with an Honorary Loan Advisory Board at each place. The Farm Loan Board in New Brunswick, the Returned Soldiers' Commission in Nova Scotia and the Department of Agriculture in Prince Edward Island will represent the board in those provinces.

The privileges granted by the act may be given to any person who has served during the war in the Canadian naval or military forces, or in the forces of the United Kingdom, or of any of the British dominions or colonies, or is a British subject, living in Canada before the war, who has served in the forces of any of the Allies, or is the widow of any person, described above, who died on active service.

The board may make loans for the purpose of acquiring land for farming, the erection of farm buildings and the purchase of stock, machinery and equipment. The amount of every loan is to be based on the value of the land or other security given. Every loan is to be a first mortgage or first charge on the land, is to bear interest at the rate of five per cent per annum and is to be repaid in equal annual instalments in not more than twenty years.

HOUSING

The Government has appropriated the sum of $25,000,000 for housing in Canada. The object of the Government is to provide houses for workingmen, particularly returned soldiers, at the actual cost of building and land acquired at a fair value, thus eliminating the profits of the speculator. The Government has appointed a committee of the cabinet to administer the loan.

The money will be lent direct to the Provincial Governments, all loans for housing purposes will be administered through them, and each province has to prepare a general scheme. Frame and veneered houses must not exceed $3,500 in cost, and brick, concrete, and stone houses $4,500 in cost. The money will be lent for twenty years, or in special cases for thirty years. The Government is recommending that the sites and buildings should be properly planned, in accordance with modern principles of town planning and architecture. It is hoped that the Federal Branch of the Administration will be useful to the different provinces as a clearing house for comparative information regarding details of schemes, methods of standardization of dwellings, costs of construction, town planning procedure, methods of expropriating land for schemes and model plans of dwellings.

THE KHAKI UNIVERSITY

An educational plan has been established in connection with the Canadian forces under the name of the Department of Educational Services, popularly called the Khaki University

The Khaki University is under the control of the Department of Militia and is recognized by the Canadian universities. In addition to the funds supplied by the military authorities, a large amount of money has been put by the Y. M. C. A. at the disposal of the committee for carrying on the work.

The teaching is done almost entirely by voluntary instructors, chaplains and Y. M. C. A. secretaries, as well as officers, n. c. o.'s and men who had previously been in the teaching profession.

Many libraries have been established in the army areas in England and France, and over 12,000 men have registered in Khaki University classes in England.

The work which has been organized in the training centres in England and, as far as possible among the troops in France, will be carried on and developed even during the period of demobilization.

THE REPATRIATION COMMITTEE

A committee of the cabinet has been appointed and charged with the duty and responsibility of securing the closest co-operation of all the departments of the Government and of other agencies now existing, or to be created for the purpose of dealing with: (*a*) The absorption into civil life and occupation of discharged soldiers; (*b*) labour conditions which may arise from industrial dislocation and readjustment.

An office has been opened at Ottawa the staff of which is in continual communication with Dominion and Provincial Government Departments, municipalities and voluntary organizations.

WAR ARCHIVES SURVEY

In April, 1917, the public archivist was empowered to make a survey of all the war activities of Canada, and prepare a complete key to all classes of public war records, and to all the departments, agencies, etc., in which they originate. This key will ensure that all Canada's records will be preserved and organized, ultimately, in such a way as to be available and intelligible for historical and other uses. In pursuance of this plan, a Canadian Special Mission visited Europe and obtained reports on all Canadian war work overseas. These reports, in fifteen large volumes, are deposited in the public archives at Ottawa.

THE WAR MUSEUM

An Imperial War Museum, with a Canadian section and a Canadian representative, is to be established in London. It will contain war trophies of every description. A similar collection has been secured for Canada.

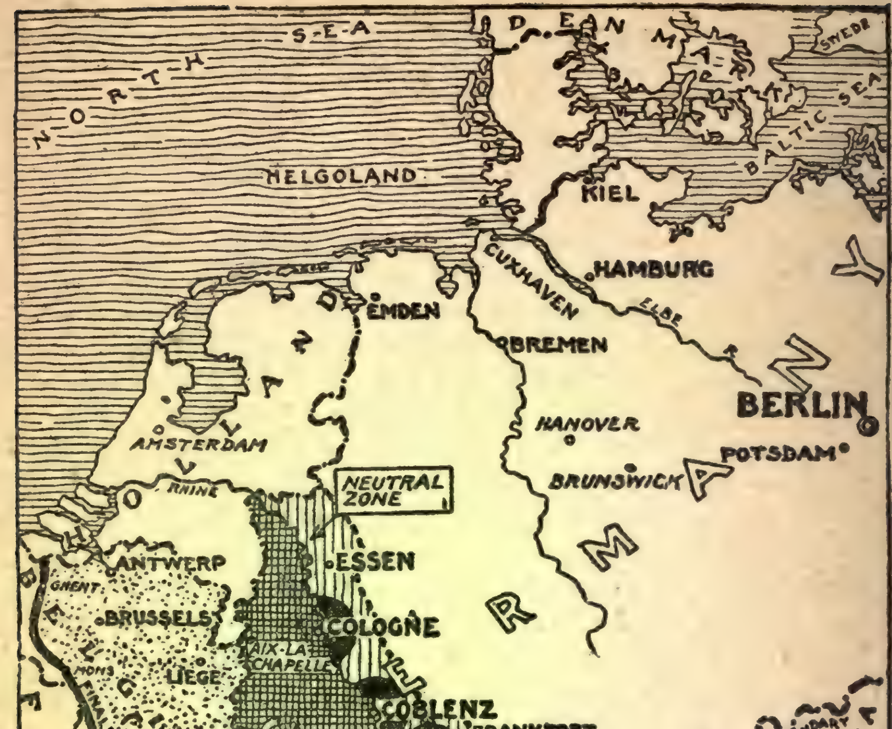
CHAPTER XVI

The Peace Conference at Paris

After prolonged discussions of a preliminary nature, conducted by the leading statesmen of the five Great Powers—Britain, France, United States, Italy and Japan—the numerous details which had to be settled before the real peace congress could begin work were disposed of, and the Supreme Council of the Powers decided that the opening session should be held on January 18th. One of the chief problems that had to be solved was that of the representation of the various nations in the Peace Conference. Each one of the Entente Allies had its own special claims for recognition, some based on participation in the war and actual accomplishment therein, others on future political importance and responsibility in carrying out the decisions of the conference. The claims as to war accomplishment were given second place, and in apportioning the number of delegates it was decided to consider chiefly the population, size and importance of the nations concerned.

Great Britain, France, the United States, Italy and Japan each had five representatives at the full conferences. Brazil had three delegates; Belgium, Serbia and Greece two each, and the smaller Allies one each. Recognition of the great part played in the war by the various dominions of the British Empire was shown by the allotment of two delegates each to Canada, Australia, India and South Africa, and one to New Zealand. The representatives of the dominions and the smaller Allies attended the meetings only when matters directly affecting their welfare were under consideration.

The Peace Conference then got down to business and sat from that time onward until the Peace Terms were issued, with the exception of the period during which Premier Clemenceau, stricken down by an anarchist's bullet, was compelled to absent himself from all meetings. Premier Lloyd George was called home to take the lead in arranging a settlement between the turbulent labour elements on the one side, and the moderate trade unions, capital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HOLLAND
BERLIN
POTSDAM
HANOVER
BRUNSWICK
GERMANY
AMSTERDAM
RHINE
NEUTRAL ZONE
ESSEN
ANTWERP
GHENT
BRUSSELS
COLOGNE
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE
MONS
LIEGE
BELGIUM
COBLENZ
FRANKFORT
BOUNDARY
BOHEMIA
MEZIERES
SEDAN
FINAL BATTLE LINE
LUXEMBURG
MAYENCE
GERNSHEIM
RHINE
STENAY
RHEIMS
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METZ
LORRAINE
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HEIDELBERG
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SCALE OF MILES
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Where the Allied Armies Waited the Result of the Peace Conference

The three black semi-circles are the Rhine bridgeheads occupied by the Allies in accordance with the Armistice of November 11, 1918. The Germans retired from the final battle line to the limits of the lightly shaded neutral zone east of the Rhine.

and industry in general on the other side, and President Wilson departed for Washington to personally lead the fight for the assent of the United States Senators to the draft constitution of the League of Nations.

The opening session of the great Peace Conference in Paris was chiefly a formal meeting to inaugurate the proceedings in a manner worthy of their importance. With due ceremony the President of France declared the Congress open, and the French Premier, Clemenceau, was then appointed president. A committee was nominated to enquire into the credentials of the various delegates, and the conference adjourned until the Supreme Council of the Great Powers could formulate concrete proposals on some of the many problems which must be settled by the peace plenipotentiaries.

As the formation of a League of Nations was regarded as one of the main preliminaries to the settlement of a just and lasting peace, little real progress toward the final treaty could be made by the conference before the constitution of the league had been accepted by the Great Powers. Upon the final conditions laid down in this covenant depended, to a great extent, the future naval and military policies of the nations concerned, if the Peace Conference was to take any serious steps towards a general disarmament.

The necessity of seeking some settlement with Russia before the subject of a League of Nations could be usefully discussed became instantly apparent. A proposal had already been made by Premier Lloyd George that representatives from the various parties in Russia should be invited to Paris to present their views to the conference. This suggestion was vigorously opposed by the French Foreign Minister, Pichon, who fiercely resented the idea of even thus far recognizing the existence of the Bolsheviki, and he refused, in the name of France, to have any discussion or dealings with them.

After devoting several meetings to the study of the problem, the Supreme Council of the Great Powers referred the matter to the special consideration of President Wilson, requesting him to formulate definite proposals to be submitted to the council. As a result the Entente Powers decided to invite representatives of all the different factions, political or military, in Russia to meet envoys of the Powers in order that the views and ideas of the opposing parties might be thoroughly aired. With a proper understanding of the facts of the case obtained in this manner, the Allies hoped to formulate some scheme which would be acceptable to the majority of Russians, and in this way help them to a peaceful settlement of their troubles. The Allies were careful to state that their intentions were purely friendly, that they did not wish to exploit Russia in any way, and that they recognized the revolution without reservation. The meeting with the Russians was called for February 15th, but did not materialize.

At the second plenary sitting of the Peace Conference, on January 25th, the principal business was the discussion of the draft preliminary resolutions for the League of Nations. The resolutions, which were proposed by President Wilson, seconded by Mr. Lloyd George, and passed without change, are of such historic importance that we reproduce them in full:

> The conference having considered the proposals for the creation of a League of Nations, resolving that:
>
> A—It is essential to the maintenance of the world settlement which the associated nations are now met to establish that a League of Nations be created to promote international co-operation to ensure the fulfilment of expected international obligations and to provide safeguards against war.
>
> B—This league should be treated as an integral part of the general treaty of peace and should be open to every civilized nation which can be relied on to promote its object.
>
> C—The members of the league should periodically meet in international conference, and should have a permanent organization and secretariat to carry on the business of the league in the intervals between the conferences—the Conference, therefore, appoints a committee representative of the associated governments to work out the details of the constitution and functions of the league.

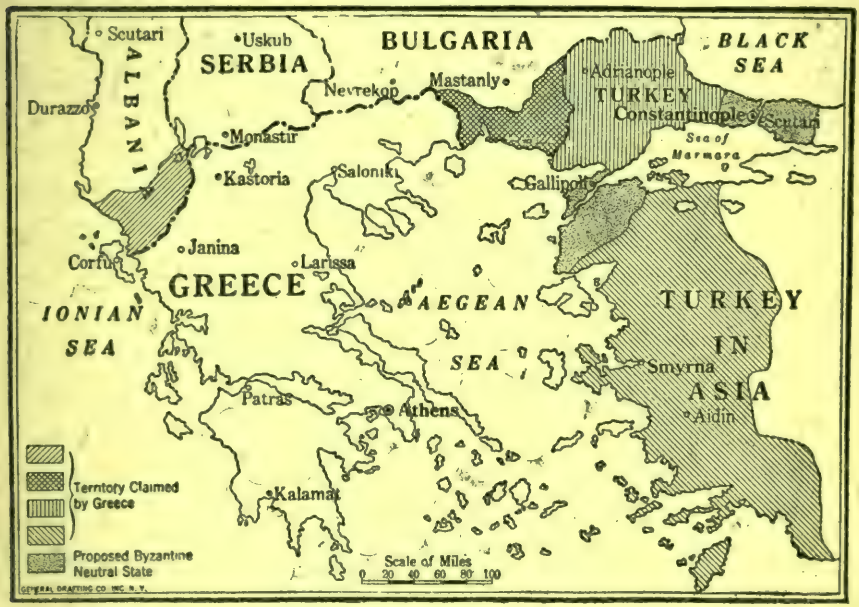
Many controversial matters came before the Conference at different times. The Presidents of the United States and France did not always see eye to eye, for France through bitter experience demanded terms that would make her free from invasion by Germany forever, while President Wilson had in mind the larger object of making all war impossible in the future.

ASPIRATIONS OF THE NATIONS

The desires of the allied and neutral nations often overlapped and it was the difficult task of the Peace Conference to adjust them. The chief demands and aspirations might be briefly expressed as follows:

France wanted Alsace-Lorraine, the basin of the Sarre River, no military works to be built along the left bank of the Rhine, some sort of guardianship of Syria and adequate reparation for damage done.

Great Britain wanted a Society of Nations established, international freedom of transit by railroads and waterways, mandatory powers over German islands south of the equator, German Southwest Africa, German East Africa, parts of Arabia and Mesopotamia and her share of the pooled indemnities.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Uskub
SERBIA
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BLACK SEA
ALBANIA
Durazzo
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Mastanly
Adrianople
TURKEY
Constantinople
Scutari
Sea of Marmora
Monastir
Kastoria
Saloniki
Gallipoli
Janina
Larissa
Corfu
GREECE
IONIAN SEA
AEGEAN SEA
TURKEY IN ASIA
Smyrna
Aidin
Patras
Athens
Kalamata
Territory Claimed by Greece
Proposed Byzantine Neutral State
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100
GENERAL DRAFTING CO. INC. N.Y.

How Greece Hoped to Expand

Showing territory claimed by Greece, and also the proposed Byzantine neutral state.

Italy wanted the Trentino to the Bremer Pass, Trieste, Istria, Fiume, Zaron, Sebentico; the larger part of the Dalmatian Islands; Aviona and its hinterland, certain islands in the Ægean and a protectorate over Albania.

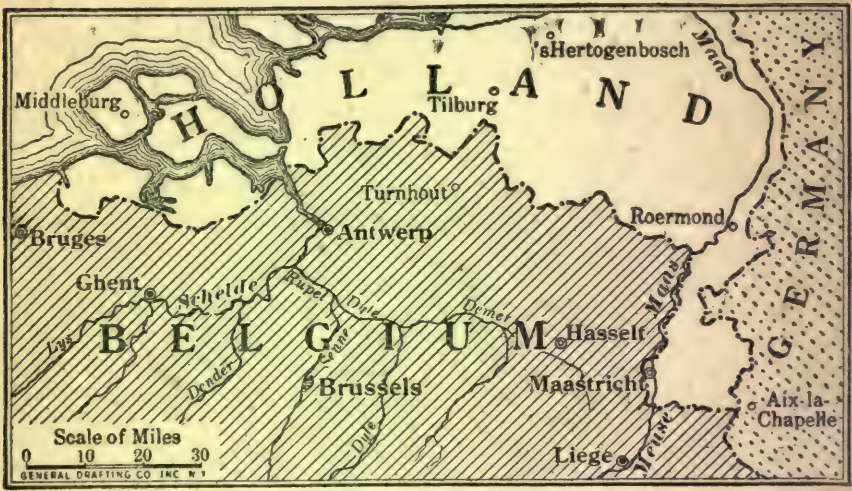
Rumania wanted part of Russian Bessarabia, Southern Dobrudja and the mouth of the Danube; also Bukowina, Transylvania and part of Banat. As Serbia also wanted the latter, French troops were moved in between the two hostile armies.

Serbia wanted Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatia. Montenegro had already united with Serbia but Serbia and Italy's claims clashed sharply in regard to Fiume, and the seaboard.

Greece desired Epirus, Thrace, the shores of the Bosporus and the Dardanelles placed under international control. She also put forward certain claims to Smyrna and Turkish islands in the eastern Mediterranean.

Bulgaria, though beaten, hoped to receive extensions of her frontiers in southern Macedonia, along the Ægean coast and in Thrace.

Czecho-Slovakia, the new state comprising the old kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia and the Slovak region of northern Hungary had already been incorporated, but numerous conflicts with surrounding peoples had occurred. It wanted part of German Saxony, German Silesia, a frontage on the Danube and a corridor to the Adriatic.


HOLLAND
BELGIUM
GERMANY
'sHertogenbosch
Maas
Middleburg
Tilburg
Turnhout
Roermond
Bruges
Antwerp
Ghent
Schelde
Rupel
Dyle
Demer
Lys
Dender
Senne
Hasselt
Maas
Brussels
Maastricht
Aix-la-Chapelle
Dyle
Meuse
Liege
Scale of Miles
0 10 20 30
GENERAL DRAFTING CO INC N Y

How Belgium Hoped to Expand
The Belgians claimed that the Netherlands should renounce its monopoly of the Scheldt.

Poland wished to obtain eastern Galicia, Cholm and Danzig.

Belgium asked for fifteen billion francs as the first lien on German assets, the return of machinery and tools stolen, the left bank of the Scheldt and total reparation.

Japan stated she would hand back Tsing-Tau. She desired to retain the German isles north of the equator and evidently wished to obtain certain former German concessions on the Shantung Peninsula. She was also willing to aid in restoring order in Russia.

China wanted to be guaranteed freedom from foreign aggression, the gradual abolition of "Consular rights," and the return of Kiau-Chau.

Switzerland desired an outlet to the sea by making the Rhine a neutral stream.

Denmark wished to annex that part of northern Schleswig inhabited by Danes.

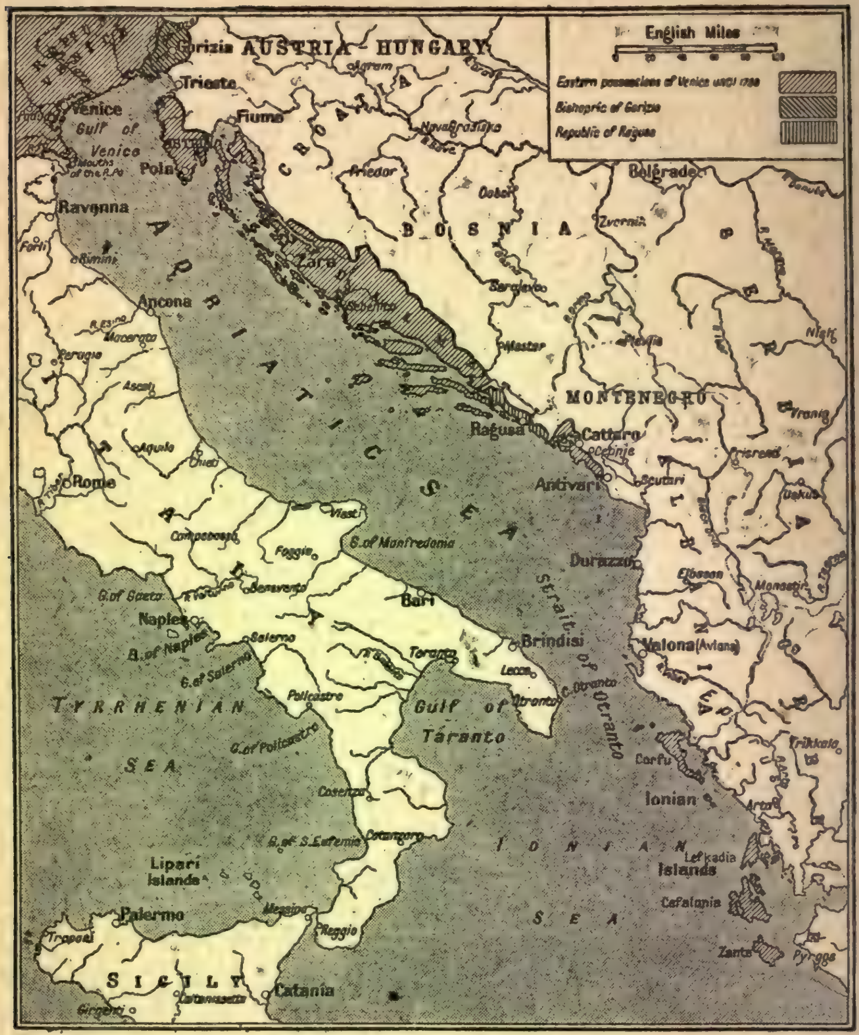
It may at once be seen that the satisfactory adjustment of these demands meant a rearrangement of the map of Europe. Furthermore, many of the claims conflicted; in some cases, particularly in the Balkans, the satisfactory settlement of the demand of one nation would outrage the national sentiment of another. On several occasions the situation at the Peace Conference became so acute that delegates of certain countries withdrew in protest. Great difficulties also occurred through the public becoming agitated over questions which had been more or less misrepresented by newspaper correspondents. The press of different countries wielded all possible influence to force discussion on certain debatable matter.

THE WITHDRAWAL OF ITALY

Many and serious were the differences of opinion and conflicts of ambitions which had to be smoothed over or settled by the leaders of the peace delegates at Paris, but a breach more serious than all former ones was encountered, of such gravity as to threaten the withdrawal of one of the five great powers from the deliberations. Italy was the disaffected party, and the trouble arose over her insistence on her rights to the port of Fiume, on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, while the other Allies were not willing that she should occupy that seaport.

Whether as spokesman for Britain and France or not, President Wilson took the lead in opposing Italy's claim, and for several days the Italian delegates refrained from attending the councils of the Big Four.

Italy based her claims on a secret agreement made with Britain and France, prior to her entering the war, known as the Pact of London, but her two Allies read the treaty as giving Fiume


English Miles
0
20
40
60
80
100
Eastern possessions of Venice until 1798
Bishopric of Gorizia
Republic of Ragusa
Gorizia
AUSTRIA - HUNGARY
Trieste
Agram
Venice
Gulf of Venice
Mouths of the R. Po
Pola
Fiume
CROATIA
Novi Gradiška
Friedor
Doboj
Belgrade
Danube
Ravenna
Forli
Rimini
BOSNIA
Zvornik
Zara
ADRIATIC SEA
Sebenico
Serajevo
Ancona
Macerata
Perugia
Ascoli
Mostar
Niš
MONTENEGRO
Ragusa
Cattaro
Cetinje
Aquila
Chieti
Rome
Antivari
Scutari
Uskub
Vieste
Campobasso
Foggia
G. of Manfredonia
Durazzo
Elbasan
Monastir
G. of Gaeta
Naples
B. of Naples
Benevento
Bari
Salerno
G. of Salerno
Brindisi
Strait of Otranto
Valona (Avlona)
Taranto
Lecce
C. Otranto
Otranto
TYRRHENIAN SEA
Policastro
Gulf of Taranto
G. of Policastro
Corfu
Trikkala
Cosenza
Ionian
Arta
G. of S. Eufemia
Catanzaro
IONIAN SEA
Lefkadia
Islands
Lipari Islands
Cefalonia
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Trapani
Zante
Pyrgos
SICILY
Caltanissetta
Catania
Girgenti

THE CONTRASTING COAST-LINES OF THE ADRIATIC

This map illustrates the contrast between the almost harbourless Adriatic coast of Italy and the opposite eastern coast with its numerous deep-water, well-sheltered ports. It also indicates the projection of the shore of Southern Albania to within 45 miles of the Italian cape of Otranto, whereby a hostile power holding Valona (Avlona), could close the Adriatic to Italian shipping. The map further shows in tint the eastern possessions of Venice down to 1798.

to Croatia, so they were unable to support Italy's contention. President Wilson took the stand that as the United States did not become a party to this pact she was in no way bound by it, while she was certainly called to stand by the principles enunciated by the President in his famous fourteen points as principles of peace. It was contrary to those principles to allow Italy to annex Fiume on the pretense that she needed it to secure herself against Austrian naval aggression, when all the time there were countries on that side of the Adriatic who found Fiume their sole outlet to the Adriatic and Mediterranean.

The President brought matters to a head by taking the unusual and original course of publishing a résumé of the whole question, clearly stating his reasons for opposing Italy's claims, and declaring his determination to abide by his principles. The Italian delegates received their first intimation of the publication of this statement when they read it in the Paris newspapers, and they immediately withdrew from the Peace Conference.

Lloyd George and Clemenceau strained every nerve to prevent an actual breach and though public feeling ran very high in Rome and throughout Italy in support of Premier Orlando, who, with Baron Sonnino, had returned to Italy, the matter, after a great deal of difficulty, was adjusted and the Italian representatives returned to the peace table.

Japan's claims in China, particularly as to her rights in the Shantung peninsula, at one time seemed to threaten to bring about a block in the proceedings similar to that with the Italians. A compromise was reached allowing Japan to temporarily retain her rights in the disputed territory, the decision as to permanent ownership being postponed until after the larger question of the world's peace had been settled and signed.

Belgium also withdrew her delegates in protest on one occasion.

The task of the representatives of the Allies of preparing a treaty that would safeguard all the interests of the Allies and neutral powers, and render the German nation incapable of again waging war was truly a Herculean one. For the first time in the carrying out of such a task everything was done in public; it was the first time that secrecy had not prevailed; that ambassadors had played little or no part; that the cards were all on the table. The world would have no more of secret diplomacy and it said so in no uncertain way. Consequently since there was to be a really earnest attempt to evolve a satisfactory settlement that would prevent future wars the greatest men of every country were the representatives appointed to the great task.

To the waiting nations the time of discussing and preparing the Peace Treaty seemed long and they frequently became impatient. Probably no one will ever explain the task and its attendant difficulties better than Mr. Lloyd George to a House of Parliament that had to a considerable extent lost its patience and become critical. Among other things the British Premier said:

"We want peace. We want a peace that is just, but not vindictive. We want peace, a stern peace, because the occasion demands it, the crime demands it; but its severity must be designed not to gratify vengeance, but to vindicate justice. Every clause in the terms must be justified on that ground.

"Above all, we want to prevent a repetition of the horrors of the big war by making the wrongdoer repair the wrongs and losses which he has inflicted by his wanton aggression; by punishing each individual who is responsible, and by depriving the nations, which menaced the peace of Europe for half a century with flourishing the sword, of their weapons. I stand by my pledges by avoiding a condition which, by creating a legitimate sense of wrong, would excite national pride to endlessly seek opportunities for redress. The most permanent security of all is the power of the nations of the earth federated with a firm purpose of maintaining peace."

CHAPTER XVII

The Treaty of Peace and League of Nations

Two special trains conveyed the German peace delegates and their corps of assistants and reporters to Versailles where three hotels were placed at their disposal. They were empowered to sign the Peace Treaty if it contained nothing but what was covered by Wilson's fourteen points. If in doubt they had to return to Weimar and consult the Government.

The German delegates were headed by Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau, the German Foreign Minister. When received by Premier Clemenceau, who stood, the Count sat down and read a long speech in which he accused the Allies of causing thousands of deaths through starvation by continuing the blockade. Copies of the peace terms were then submitted to the German delegates for consideration.

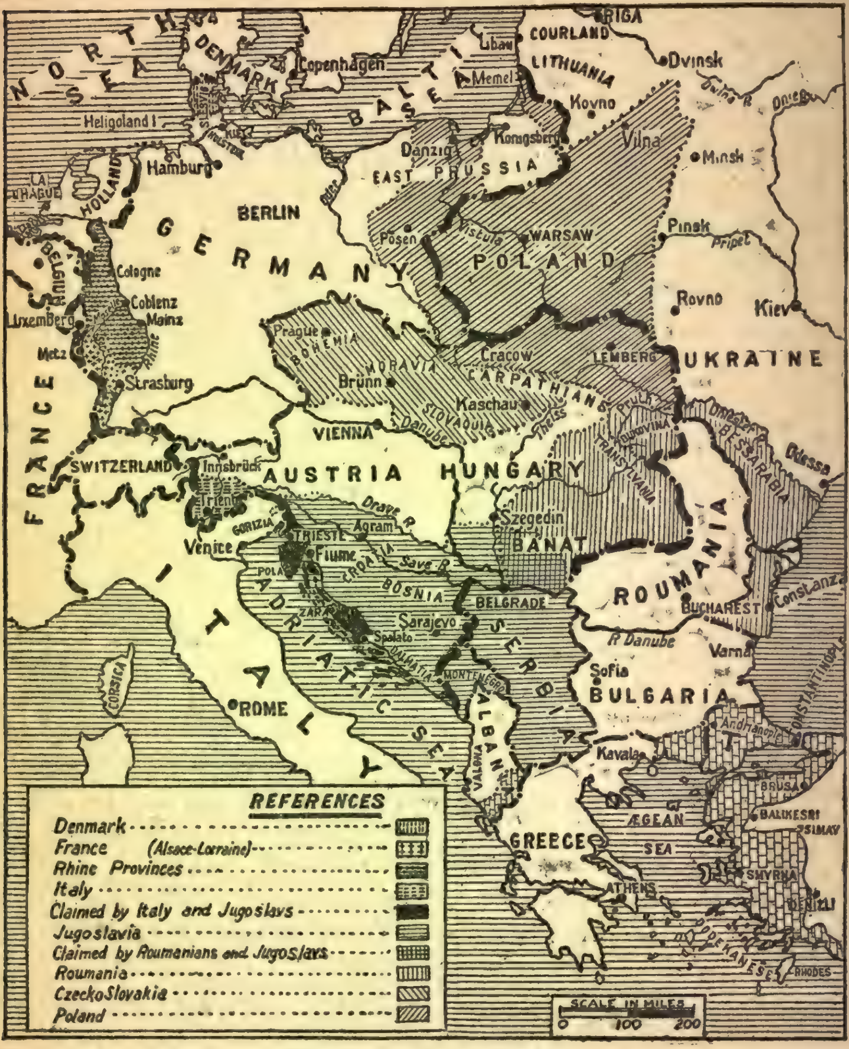
"We are under no illusion as to the extent of our defeat and the degree of our want of power," said Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, when he received the peace terms on the fourth anniversary of the sinking of the *Lusitania.*

The allied representatives refused to hold any discussion with the German delegates, stating that all representations must be put in writing. The treatment was exactly the same as that which the Germans had extended to Rumanians, who had been given four days to sign. From Germany, which had been allowed fifteen days to consider the terms and sign, came a long-sustained chorus of protests against the conditions imposed by the Peace Treaty. Chancellor Scheidemann, in the German Assembly, described the treaty as a murderous scheme entirely unacceptable. Everywhere agents endeavored to stir up public opinion against the peace terms and raise a popular outcry, but without any great success.

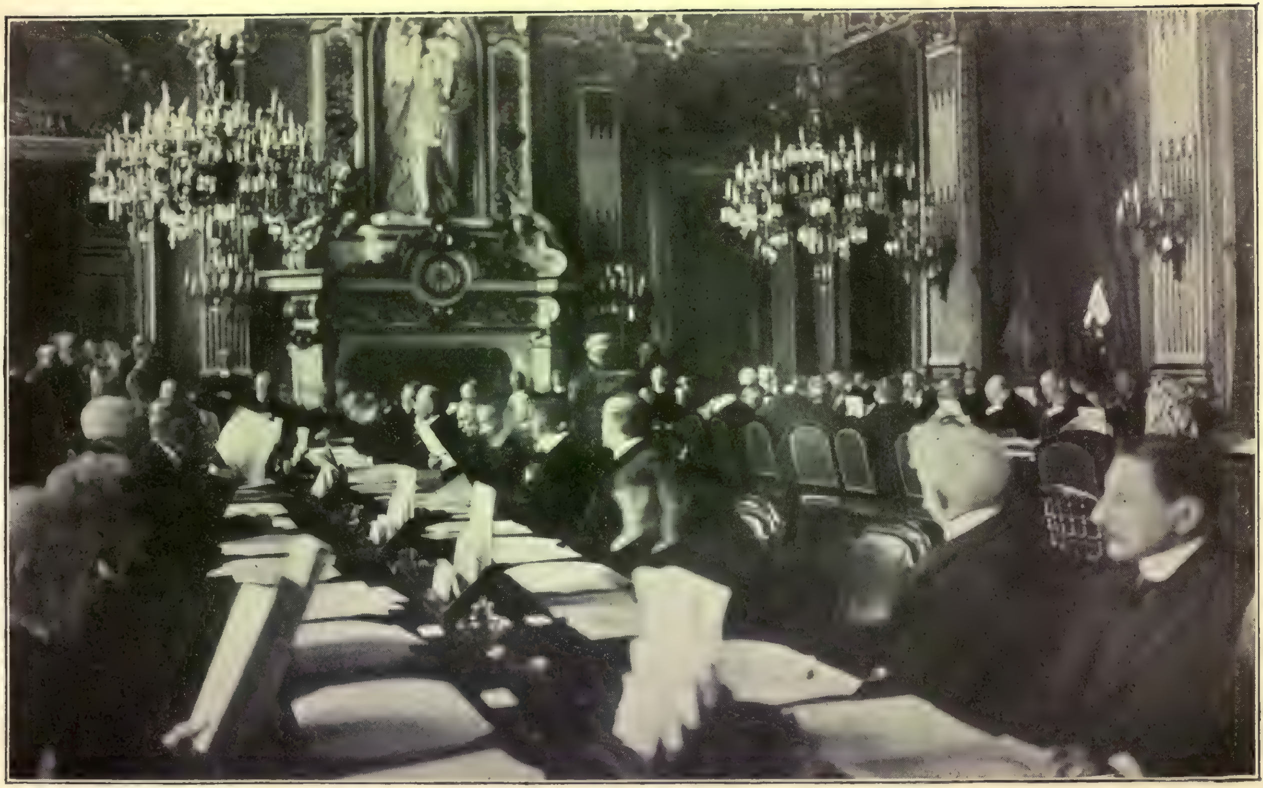
In the fifteen-day interval volumes of notes of protest were sent by Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau, many of which were considered to be objections raised as a matter of form.

When these had been considered, on the expiry of the time period the German delegates were notified of the date on which their signatures were to be placed on the treaty.

The great fear in France and Great Britain that there would be a "soft" peace was dissipated by the publishing of the peace terms. Everywhere throughout the United States, Great Britain


NORTH SEA
DENMARK
Copenhagen
BALTIC SEA
Libau
COURLAND
RIGA
LITHUANIA
Dvinsk
Memel
Kovno
Heligoland I.
Königsberg
Vilna
Minsk
Danzig
Hamburg
EAST PRUSSIA
HOLLAND
HAGUE
BERLIN
GERMANY
BELGIUM
Cologne
Posen
WARSAW
POLAND
Pinsk
Pripet
Coblenz
Mainz
Luxemberg
Metz
Rhine
Rovno
Kiev
Prague
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Cracow
LEMBERG
UKRAINE
Strasburg
Brünn
CARPATHIANS
Kaschau
SLOVAQUIA
Danube
Theiss
Pruth
BUKOVINA
Dniester
BESSARABIA
Odessa
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
Innsbrück
VIENNA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Trient
Drave R.
GORIZIA
TRIESTE
Agram
Szegedin
Venice
Fiume
BANAT
CROATIA
Save R.
POLA
BOSNIA
BELGRADE
ROUMANIA
BUCHAREST
Constanza
ZARA
Sarajevo
Spalato
SERBIA
R. Danube
Varna
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
DALMATIA
MONTENEGRO
Sofia
BULGARIA
CORSICA
ROME
ALBANIA
VALONA
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
Kavala
BRUSA
ÆGEAN SEA
BALIKESRI
SIMAV
GREECE
SMYRNA
ATHENS
DENIZLI
DODEKANESE
RHODES
REFERENCES
Denmark
France (Alsace-Lorraine)
Rhine Provinces
Italy
Claimed by Italy and Jugoslavs
Jugoslavia
Claimed by Roumanians and Jugoslavs
Roumania
CzeckoSlovakia
Poland
SCALE IN MILES
0
100
200

THE PROBLEMS OF PEACE
Map of Europe, with different shadings to indicate the claims of the various nations represented at the peace conference



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THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT THE QUAY D'ORSAY, PARIS

A full meeting of the delegates of the allied and associated nations for the consideration of the terms of the peace treaty with Germany and her allies. Under the clock are the seats of Minister Lloyd George of Great Britain, Premiers Clemenceau of France and Orlando of Italy and President Wilson of the United States.

and France it was recognized that Germany had been reduced to a third-class power, that the world had been freed for all time from the terror of German imperialism and that the German people themselves were freed from the obsessions that had brought ruin upon them. Their faith in militarism and the superman fallacy was destroyed. The nation which in its pride had sought to dominate the world was reduced to a country without an army, without a navy, with an enormous debt and without prestige in international politics.

It was recognized that, taken in connection with the League of Nations, the German fate would act as a powerful deterrent to the rest of the world, for in five years the greatest military nation on earth had been rendered absolutely impotent. The terms which made the period of enlistment in the German army twelve years and prevented the discharge of more than five per cent of the force in any one year were designed to make the army unpopular as a profession and prevent any large number of civilians being trained as soldiers.

There was no maudlin sentiment about the hardness of the terms. According to the published plans of Germany in 1915–19 she intended to annex Belgium and the north of France from Verdun to Boulogne, deprive France of her colonies, break up the British Empire and demand large indemnities from the United States for supplying arms and munitions to the Allies.

Germany was not dismembered by the Allies, and though she lost her colonies, little purely German territory was alienated. She was made to pay as much as possible of the damages she had inflicted and properly so. It was a just treaty and because it was just it had to be harsh. The world tribunal found the German nation to be an outlaw; it had rebelled against civilization, wrecked Europe and as such it had to be sequestered and pay the price of outlawry.

The German people naturally, having been educated in the belief that they were the superior race and in certain principles, have as yet shown little change of heart. They have not admitted their guilt and have shown little signs of remorse. German soldiers returning from the war were showered with gifts and acclaimed as victorious troops. The attitude of the German people was resentful and bitter.

The German representatives upheld the spectre of Bolshevism in Germany before the Peace Conference in an effort to frighten it. They protested that they would not sign the treaty. Some said, like Walter Rathenau in Die Zunkunft, that the German people were innocent of the wrong they had committed in a childish spirit of obedience. Others claimed that it was not peace but revenge, and most of them claimed that the treaty was in utter defiance of President Wilson's fourteen points.

Meanwhile, Marshal Foch proceeded to his armies of occupation on the Rhine prepared to advance in case of necessity.

SUMMARY OF PEACE TREATY

The Treaty of Peace between the twenty-seven allied and associated powers, on the one hand, and Germany, on the other, was handed to the German plenipotentiaries at Versailles on Wednesday, May 7, 1919, and signed on Saturday, June 28.

Preamble—The preamble names as parties of the one part the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, described as the principal allied and associated powers, and Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, the Hedjas, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Serb-Croat and Slovene State, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia and Uruguay, who, with the five above, are described as the allied and associated powers; and of the other part, Germany.

It states that: Bearing in mind that on the request of the Imperial German Government an armistice was granted on November 11, 1918, to Germany by the principal allied and associated powers, in order that a treaty of peace might be concluded with her, and the allied and associated powers being equally desirous that the war in which they were successively involved, directly or indirectly, and which originated in the declaration of war by Austria-Hungary on July 28, 1914, against Serbia; the declaration of war by Germany against Russia on August 1, 1914, and against France on August 3, 1914, and in the invasion of Belgium, should be replaced by a firm, just, and durable peace, the plenipotentiaries having communicated their full powers found in good and due form have agreed as follows:

From the coming into force of the present treaty the state of war will terminate. From the moment, and subject to the provisions of this treaty, official relations with Germany, and with any of the German states, will be resumed by the allied and associated powers.

ALSACE RESTORED TO FRANCE

Germany by the terms of the treaty restores Alsace-Lorraine to France, accepts the internationalization of the Saar Basin temporarily, and of Dantzig permanently; agrees to territorial changes towards Belgium and Denmark and in East Prussia, cedes most of Upper Silesia to Poland, and renounces in favour of the allies all her rights and titles over her oversea possessions. She also recognizes the total independence of Austria, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland.

Her army is reduced to two hundred thousand men, including officers, and to be still further reduced to one hundred thousand by March 31, 1920; conscription within her territories is abolished, all forts fifty kilometres east of the Rhine razed, and all importation, exportation and nearly all production of war materials stopped.

Allied occupation of parts of Germany will continue till reparation is made, but will be reduced at the end of each three-year period if Germany is fulfilling her obligations.

Any violation by Germany of the conditions as to the zone fifty kilometres east of the Rhine will be regarded as an act of war.

The German navy is reduced to six battleships, six light cruisers and twelve torpedo-boats, without submarines, and a personnel of not over fifteen thousand. All other vessels must be surrendered or destroyed.

Germany is forbidden to build forts controlling the Baltic, must demolish Helgoland, open the Kiel Canal to all nations, and surrender her fourteen submarine cables. She may have no military or naval air forces except one hundred unarmed seaplanes until October, to detect mines, and may not manufacture aviation material for six months.

She agrees to return to the 1914 most favored nation tariffs, without discrimination of any sort; to allow allied and associated nations freedom of transit through her territories, and to accept highly detailed provisions as to pre-war debts, unfair competition, internationalization of roads and rivers, and other economic and financial clauses.

SHANTUNG

Germany cedes to Japan all rights, titles and privileges, notably as to Kiaochow, and the railroads, mines and cables acquired by her treaty with China of March sixth, eighteen ninety-seven, and other agreements as to Shantung. All German rights to the railroad from Tsingtao to Tsinaufu, including all facilities and mining rights and rights of exploitation, pass equally to Japan, and the cables from Tsingtao to Shanghai and Chefoo, the cables free of all charges. All German state property, movable and immovable, in Kiaochow is acquired by Japan free of all charges.

GERMANY WILL PAY FOR ILLEGAL WARFARE

Germany accepts full responsibility for all damages caused to allied and associated governments and nations, agrees specially to reimburse all civilian damages, beginning with an immediate payment of 20,000,000,000 marks, later payments to be secured by bonds to be issued at the discretion of the Reparation Commission.

Germany is to pay shipping damage, on a ton for ton basis, by cession of a large part of her merchant, coasting and river fleets, and by new construction and to devote her economic resources to the rebuilding of the devastated regions.

A great number of international bodies of different kinds and for different purposes are created, some under the League of Nations, and some to execute the Peace Treaty. Among the former is the commission to govern the Saar Basin till a plebiscite is held fifteen years hence, the high commission of Dantzig, which is created into a free city under the league, and various commissions for plebiscites in Eupen and Malmédy, Schleswig and East Prussia.

Among those to carry out the Peace Treaty are the repatriations, military, naval, air, financial and economic commissions, the international high court, and military tribunals to fix responsibilities, and a series of bodies for the control of international rivers.

GERMANY'S NEW FRONTIERS

Concerning new frontiers, the inhabitants of Schleswig are to be consulted as to whether or not they wish to remain German or to return to Denmark.

Poland will have a corridor running down the Vistula to Danzig, which will be turned into a free city.

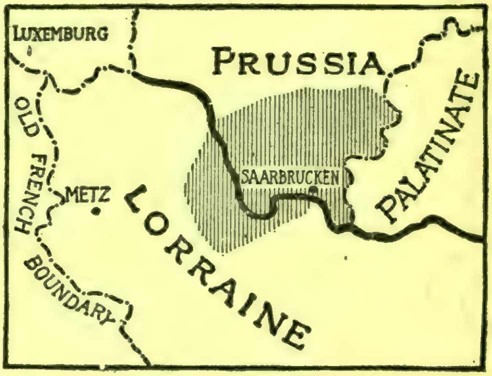
As compensation for Germany's willful destruction of the coal mines in Northern France, the Saar Valley coal mines become the property of the French Government, but the government of the district will be carried on by a committee of five, appointed by the League of Nations, one a Frenchman, one native inhabitant and the remaining three selected from countries other than France and Germany. After fifteen years the inhabitants shall decide their future by a plebiscite.

One or two of the Walloon-speaking regions in Germany on the Belgian frontier pass to Belgium.

The Brest-Litovsk Treaty, made by Germany with Russia, and others with Rumania, are considered as abrogated.

Other clauses arraign the former Kaiser not for an offence against criminal law, but "for a supreme offence against international morality and the sanctity of treaties."

The tribunal to try him is to be composed of five judges, one each from United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan.



The Saar Coal Fields

Holland is to be asked to surrender the Kaiser. The Germans are also to hand over "all persons accused of having committed any act in violation of the laws and customs of war who are specified, either by name or by rank in the office or employment which they held under German authorities."

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Part One of the treaty of peace sets forth the covenant of the league of nations with this preamble:

"The high contracting parties, in order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war, by the prescription of open, just and honourable relations between nations, by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another, agree to this covenant of the League of Nations."

The original members of the league are the signatories of the treaty, including Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and India. States invited to accede to the covenant were: Argentine, Chili, Colombia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Persia, Salvador, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and Venezuela. Other states may be added on a two-thirds vote of the Assembly. Any member of the league may, after two years' notice of intention, withdraw from the league provided all its international obligations have been fulfilled.

Following are the chief provisions of the League of Nations:

Not more than three delegates from each nation, an executive council, and one vote for each power.

Council to consist of United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan and four small powers.

Council meets at least once a year.

Wilson to summon the first peace league meeting.

Only self-governing countries admitted to the league.

Reduction of armament to lowest point consistent with safety and enforcement of international obligations.

Frank interchange of military information.

Permanent military and naval commission.

Manufacture of munitions by private enterprises declared open to grave objections.

League undertakes to respect and preserve against external aggression, the territorial integrity and political independence of its members.

No war declaration until three months after arbitration.

Permanent arbitration court.

A war, or threat of war, whether affecting members or not, is declared a matter of concern to the league which reserves right of action.

Should any member of league break or disregard its promises to adhere to arbitration it will be considered an act of war against all members of the league, which undertakes a severance of all trade and financial relations.

Nothing in the covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace.

Colonies taken from Germany, and not yet able to stand alone should be governed by mandate. Other countries can be recognized provisionally as independent.

Permanent bureau of labor to be organized to endeavor to secure humane conditions for workers in their own and other countries.

OPPOSITION TO THE LEAGUE

When President Wilson, with all the conviction of his nature, brought forward the plan for a League of Nations, the world immediately divided itself into a number of classes. All agreed that something must be done to limit armaments and future wars. But to many the Wilson programme was nebulous and impracticable. The French people, particularly, wanted definite guarantees of protection from future aggression on the part of Germany or any other nation. The British were favorable to the theory and were willing to reduce armaments but not the navy. The United States feared further entanglements in European quarrels which had no bearing whatever on the United States and also dreaded interference with the Monroe Doctrine.

The original plan was brought before a committee who worked upon it for some weeks. It was then submitted to the Peace Conference, discussed and modified, particularly by Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Balfour, who made suggestions to make it more practicable and workable. Meanwhile the whole world was talking about the League of Nations' idea and the more people discussed it the more favorably they viewed it.

"Self-determination" seemed at first sight a simple enough problem but a little thought will show that it is not so simple. For instance, the South wished to separate from the North, in the United States, and govern itself. The war which resulted was fought directly against the right of "self-determination" of the South to govern itself in its own way.

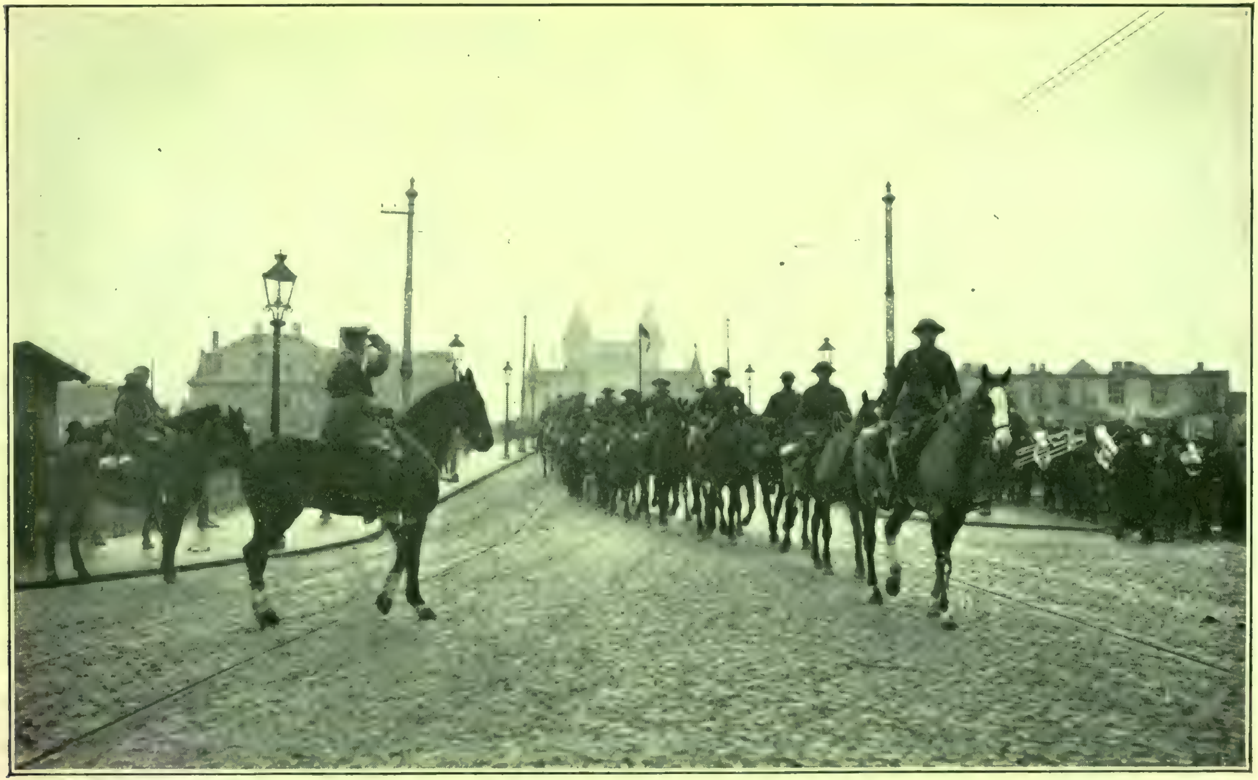
In Europe the difficulties surrounding this question appeared almost unsurmountable. There was the question of "self-determination" of the peoples included in Russia, in Poland, in Austria-Hungary and in the Balkans, to go no further. The setting up of a large number of small republics in Europe would keep the rest of the world on edge for many years to come with their petty squabbles.

The learned and cautious Oxford Professor, Gilbert Murray, in a historical and very clearly argued article, reminds us that: "War does not always arise from mere wickedness or folly. It sometimes arises from mere growth and movement. Humanity will not stand still. One people grows while another declines. One naturally expands in a particular direction and finds that thereby it is crossing the path of another." He cites the unification of Italy, the independence of the United States, the release of Balkan nations from the Turks as proofs of that thesis.

But he notes that: "Throughout the nineteenth century and up to 1914 an ever-increasing number of international difficulties were settled without war. The method was diplomatic conference and, when that failed, arbitration. In 1914 special arbitration treaties already existed between most of the Western nations, except Germany; and not only the treaties, but the spirit of fair dealing and 'cordial understanding' which had grown up between Great Britain and most of the other Powers, made the final cessation of war between civilized states a goal by no means unattainable. It only needed the further spread of the 'cordial understanding' to include Germany and Austria, and so achieve that 'bringing together of the two great groups' which was the main purpose of Sir Edward Grey's policy."

And he continues: "The hope is that the League will be so strong and general that to stand out of it will be a marked action. The Power that stands out will thereby be confessing that it means still, in spite of all that the world has suffered, to cleave to war and make its fortune by war. Let us hope there may be no such Power. But if there is, its existence will not wreck the whole League; it will perhaps bind it the more together, as law-abiding settlers stand together against a robber or pirate."

Brigadier-General Tyrrel, a British military historian, writes that his fear is that: "A League of Nations with only a general purpose is subject to the principle that what is everybody's business is nobody's business, as was proved in the case of Armenia and the



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FORWARD INTO GERMANY

The Canadian Corps Commander, Sir Arthur Currie, takes the salute of his brave soldiers as they cross the bridge over the Rhine at Bonn.

Congo Free State. In the former case Russia had constituted herself the protector of Armenia by the Treaty of San Stefano; but Lord Beaconsfield succeeded in substituting for this arrangement the protection of Armenian interests by concert of all the Great Powers of Europe, which was formally ratified in the Treaty of Berlin.

"Great Britain was the only Power which attempted to carry out this provision of the treaty, and her half-hearted and ineffectual attempts only aggravated the sufferings of the Armenians under Turkish rule.

"In the second case the Congo Free State was created by the concert of European Powers to develop civilization in Central Africa, and it was confided to the tender mercies of King Leopold of Belgium, who violated every condition under which it had been entrusted to him and turned it into a slave state, worked for the pecuniary benefit of himself and other Belgian capitalists. Not a single government could be brought to interfere to enforce the conditions of the treaty which they had put their seals to.

"When Austria-Hungary violated the provisions of that same treaty in 1909 by her annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Germany supported her illegal act, and no other Power cared or dared to call her to account. Nations are selfish, like individuals, and may be trusted always to pursue their own interests instead of the common good, and a League of Nations to prevent war might perhaps result in providing causes for it."

Says Viscount, formerly Sir Edward Grey: "President Wilson and his country have had in this matter the great advantage of having been for more than two years and a half, before April, 1917, able to observe the war as neutrals, free from the intense anxiety and effort that absorb all the thought and energy of belligerents. They were able not only to observe, but to reflect and to draw conclusions. One of the conclusions has been that, if the world of which they form an important part is to be saved from what they consider disaster, they must enter the war against Germany; another has been that, if national liberty and peace are to be secure in future, there must be a League of Nations to secure them.

"It must not be supposed from this that the governments of the Allies are less ready to draw, or have not already drawn, the same conclusion from the experience of the war; but their countries have been at war all the time. They have been fighting, it is true, for the same ideal of national and human liberty as the United States, but fighting also for the immediate preservation of national existence in Europe, and all their thought and energy have been concentrated upon resistance to imminent peril. Nevertheless, in this country at any rate, the project of a League of Nations has met with widespread and cordial acceptance."

The Right Honourable Arthur Henderson, the secretary of the British Labor Party, speaking for labor men, declares that: "The establishment of a League of Nations will be a dramatic declaration of the fact that the peoples of the world form one family, and will show that they have learned that war is a family quarrel which humiliates every member of it, and destroys the happiness and prosperity of the whole. When the League is established, it will keep before the eyes of all nations the truth that peace is the greatest of human blessings, and that a dynasty or a government bent on war is the enemy of the human race.

"In labor's view the ultimate purpose of such a League is to create a common mind in the world, to make the nations conscious of the solidarity of their interests, and to enable them to perceive that the world is one, and not a number of separate countries divided by artificial frontiers. . . .

"Democracy stands at the cross-roads. Whether the path taken is the one that leads to a new social order giving freedom and security to all, or the path that leads to revolutionary struggles and a violent and stormy close to the story of Western civilization, depends very largely upon the fate of this project of a League of Nations. If we fail here we fail irretrievably. Wars more frightful than the present will waste the substance of our race, and we shall lose even the belief in the possibility of progress."

Back of all this expert opinion was the conviction of the millions of men who had fought at the front that the whole system which had permitted of the cataclysm in Europe was wrong and had to be reformed. They realized that the old system of secret alliances, of balance of power, of the stirring up of national hatreds which made war possible was a thing to be hated more than the enemy himself.

The men and officers knew that the social and political structure of European society was wrong and their influence was strongly behind the forces that sought to bring about its reform. The hope of a League of Nations therefore that would make war impossible never received greater support than among the men who had faced death. They had no intention, if they could prevent it, of allowing their children and the generation yet to come to go into the hell of war through which they themselves had passed.

During the Peace Conference great criticism and in some places strong opposition took place in regard to the League of Nations' covenant. In the United States this was so strong that President Wilson returned to America to explain the plan and endeavour to formulate public opinion in favour of the project. In a speech in New York upon the subject President Wilson said in part:

"I do not know when I have been more impressed than by the conferences of the commission set up by the Conference of Peace to draw up a covenant for the League of Nations. The representatives of fourteen nations sat around that board—not young men, not men inexperienced in the politics of the world; and the inspiring influence of every meeting was the concurrence of purpose on the part of all those men to come to an agreement and an effective working agreement with regard to this League of the civilized world.

"There was a conviction in the whole impulse; there was conviction of more than one sort; there was the conviction that this thing ought to be done, and there was also the conviction that not a man there would venture to go home and say that he had not tried to do it.

"It is one of the agreements of this covenant that it is the friendly right of every nation a member of the League to call attention to anything that it thinks will disturb the peace of the world, no matter where that thing is occurring.

"There is no subject that may touch the peace of the world which is exempt from inquiry and discussion, and I think everybody here present will agree with me that Germany would never have gone to war if she had permitted the world to discuss the aggression upon Serbia for a single week.

"The British Foreign Office suggested, it pleaded, that there might be a day or two delay so that the representatives of the nations of Europe could get together and discuss the possibilities of a settlement. Germany did not dare permit a day's discussion. You know that happened. So soon as the world realized that an outlaw was at large, the nations began one by one to draw together against her.

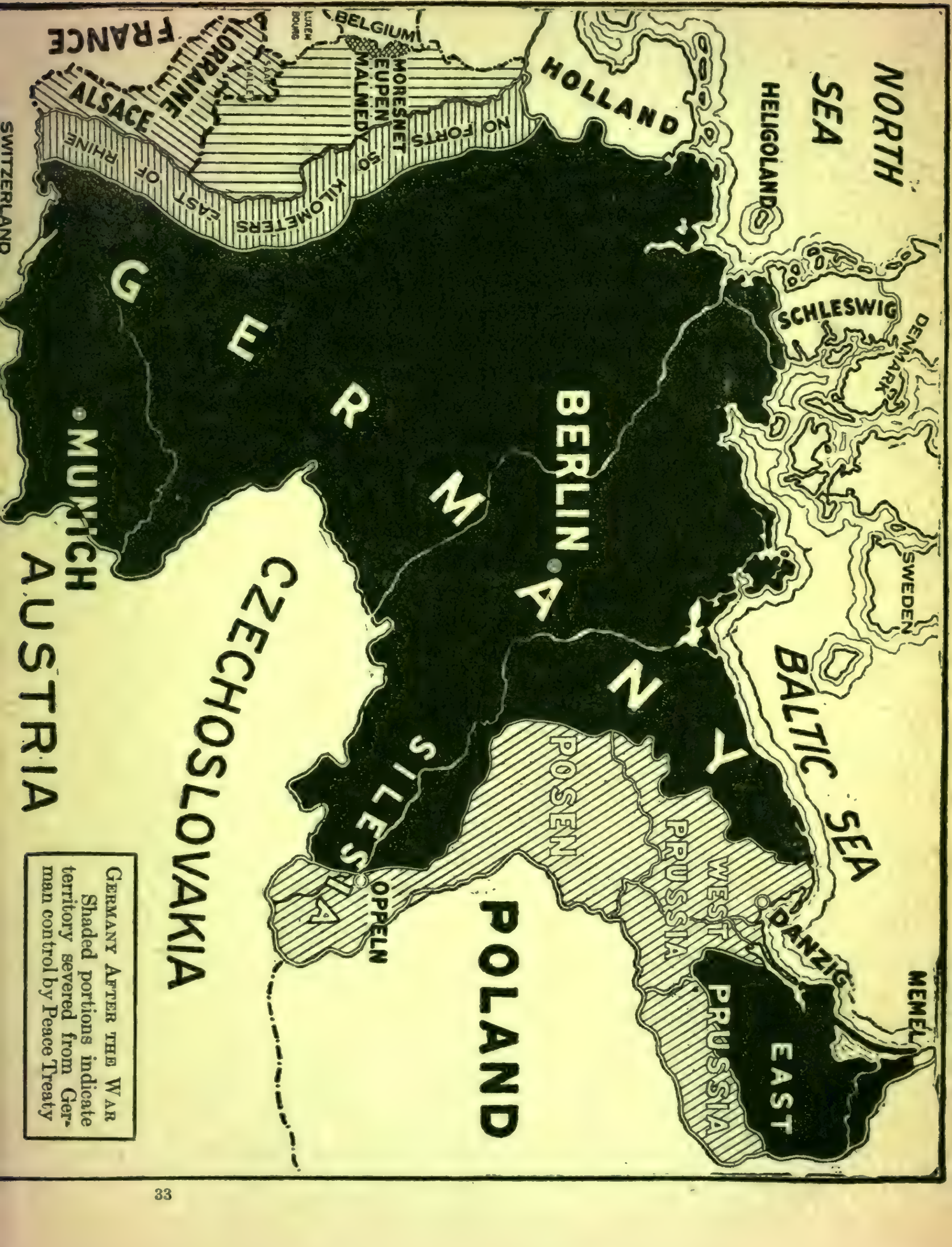
"We know for a certainty that if Germany had thought for a moment that Great Britain would go in with France and with Russia she never would have undertaken the enterprise and the League of Nations is meant as a notice to all outlaw nations that not only Great Britain, but the United States and the rest of the world, will go in to stop enterprises of that sort. And so the League of Nations is nothing more nor less than the covenant that the world will always maintain the standards which it has now vindicated by some of the most precious blood ever spilt.

"My friends, I wish you would reflect upon this proposition. The vision as to what is necessary for greater reforms has seldom come from the top in the nations of the world. It has come from the need and the aspiration and the self-assertion of great bodies of men who meant to be free. And I can explain some of the criticisms which have been levelled against this great enterprise only by the supposition that the men who utter the criticisms have never felt the great pulse of the heart of the world.

"And I am amazed—not alarmed but amazed—that there should be in some quarters such a comprehensive ignorance of the state of the world. These gentlemen do not know what the mind of men is just now. Everybody else does. I do not know where they have been closeted; I do not know by what influences they have been blinded; but I do know that they have been separated from the general currents of the thoughts of mankind.

"And I want to utter his solemn warning, not in the way of a threat; the forces of the world do not threaten, they operate. The great tides of the world do not give notice that they are going to rise and run. They rise in their majesty and overwhelming might, and those who stand in the way are overwhelmed. Now the heart of the world is awake, and the heart of the world must be satisfied.

"America's soldiers went overseas feeling they were sacredly bound to the realization of those ideals which their President had enunciated when the United States went into the war.


NORTH SEA
HELIGOLAND
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
LUXEMBOURG
MORESNET
EUPEN
MALMEDY
SAAR VALLEY
LORRAINE
ALSACE
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
NO FORTS 50 KILOMETERS EAST OF RHINE
SCHLESWIG
DENMARK
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
MEMEL
DANZIG
EAST PRUSSIA
WEST PRUSSIA
POSEN
POLAND
OPPELN
SILESIA
GERMANY
BERLIN
MUNICH
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
AUSTRIA

Germany After the War

Shaded portions indicate territory severed from German control by Peace Treaty

"There is another point which critics of the League had not observed.

"They not only have not observed the temper of the world but they have not even observed the temper of those splendid boys in khaki that they sent across the seas.

"And do you suppose," continued the President, "that having felt that crusading spirit of these youngsters, who went over there not to glorify America, but to serve their fellowmen, I am going to permit myself for one moment to slacken in my effort to be worthy of them and their cause? I do mean not to come back until 'it's over over there,' and it must not be over until the nations of the world are assured of the permanency of peace.

"I must say that I have been puzzled by some of the criticisms —not by the criticisms themselves; I can understand them perfectly, even when there was no foundation for them; but by the fact of the criticism. I cannot imagine how these gentlemen can live and not live in the atmosphere of the world. I cannot imagine how they can live and not be in contact with the events of the times, and I particularly cannot imagine how they can be Americans and set up a doctrine of careful selfishness, thought out to the last detail. I have heard no counsel of generosity in their criticism. I have heard no constructive suggestion. I have heard nothing except 'Will it not be dangerous to us to help the world?' It would be fatal to us not to help it.

"From being what I will venture to call the most formidable and the most powerful nation in the world we would of a sudden have become the most contemptible. So I did not need to be told, as I have been told, that the people of the United States would support this covenant. I am an American and I knew they would."

Of George Washington's warning of entangling alliances, President Wilson said that "the thing that he longed for was just what we are now about to supply—an arrangement which will disentangle all the alliances in the world."

The President said that criticisms of the League "do not make any impression on me,'' because "the sentiment of the country is proof against such narrowness and such selfishness as that."

"Now all the peoples of Europe are buoyed up in the hope that all the nations of the world will unite their moral and physical forces that right shall prevail.

"What would happen if America should fail the world of its hopes? All nations will be set up as hostile camps again, and the men at the Peace Conference will go home with their heads upon their breasts because they will have failed. We would leave on the peace table nothing but a modern 'scrap of paper.' "

The United States Senate refused to endorse the League of Nations' plan as requested by President Wilson and Congress was adjourned in the midst of a Republican filibuster in the Senate that succeeded in killing a long list of important measures.

The President then announced that he would return to Europe and remain till peace was signed.

In passing the revised covenant for the establishment of a League of Nations, the Allies fulfilled their promise to provide a means whereby it is hoped that a repetition of the horrors of the world war just concluded will be made impossible.

CHAPTER XVIII

The Canadian Army Medical Corps

In spite of the terrible methods and conditions of modern warfare, no army has ever been kept in such splendid health as the huge complicated organization which represented the British Empire. In so far as the Canadian Corps was concerned this was due to the ceaseless vigilance of the Canadian Army Medical Corps, supported by an efficient system of baths and laundries. The C. A. M. C. was modelled exactly after the system of the Royal Army Medical Corps. The work of the mobile laboratory and the strictly enforced regulations of the sanitary officers contributed largely to the health of the troops and their freedom from disease.

The C. A. M. C. was the result of the work of Brigadier-General Neilson, our first Canadian Surgeon-General, who organized the corps in 1896. The organization consisted of an elastic skeleton formation which could be expanded indefinitely to meet any requirements.

When war broke out the scheme of organization rapidly absorbed the members of the medical profession, students, and others who offered their services. The field ambulances and hospital units needed at once were quickly mobilized and sent overseas, while others, including some raised by universities, were equipped and sent overseas as rapidly as they could be utilized.

Few people realize what an enormous expansion of the C. A. M. C. the unexpected size of the Canadian Expeditionary Force and the heavy toll of casualties necessitated. The Canadian hospital accommodation in England, at first confined to a single hospital at Taplow, ultimately embraced thirty hospitals in the southeastern counties. The Orpington Hospital alone had forty-six wards and covered acres of ground.

Under the control of the C. A. M. C. in England there were stationary hospitals, convalescent hospitals, Red Cross hospitals, and special hospitals such as the Westcliffe Eye and Ear Hospital, a tuberculosis sanitarium at Stafford, and the Granville Canadian special hospital at Buxton for nervous disorders.

The whole organization in England for the first two and one-half years was under the control of the Director of Medical Services, Surgeon General-Carleton Jones, C.M.G. (Legion of Honor), to whose patient and untiring efforts the credit of its marvellous development in England was due. Later on he was succeeded by Surgeon-General Foster, C.B., who took hold of a fully developed going concern.

The medical service in each large training area was under an assistant director of medical services; in the smaller areas a deputy assistant director was in charge. There were in England field ambulances in training, sanitary section, advanced depots of medical stores and a mobile laboratory. The Canadian Army Medical Corps in England was not only a very large but a very complicated organization.

In France, apart from the field ambulances, casualty clearing stations, advanced depots of medical stores and mobile laboratory, there were only general and stationary hospitals.

No praise can be too high for the devotion to duty displayed by all ranks of the C. A. M. C. Stretcher bearers, orderlies, nurses and doctors worked sometimes for days on end, oftentimes under fire, and many were the deeds of bravery recorded and honours received by them. Canadian hospital units at the front and even base hospitals far from the firing line, such as those at Salonika and Etaples, were deliberately bombed by Hun aviators.

Canadian hospitals seeing service with the Imperial forces invariably earned the highest commendation from the British authorities for their efficiency and high quality of work.

In the Canadian Corps a corps laundry was inaugurated to replace the divisional laundries formerly in use. Its capacity was 40,000 pieces a day. The Canadian Corps laundry and bath-houses not only issued clean clothing but replaced lost and destroyed articles. This system was peculiar to the Canadian Corps. The Ordnance Department, under whose charge the bath-houses and laundry were, issued garments directly to the laundry and baths where the issues were to be made. Lost garments or those rendered unserviceable through wear and tear were replaced at once. With a reserve of clothing on hand it was quite a simple matter, when issuing summer for winter underclothes, to make the exchange at the baths. The operation of most of the baths in the British army was undertaken by the sanitary officers in combination with the Ordnance Corps.

THE CANADIAN DENTAL CORPS

There would be little purpose in issuing certain of the army rations to men if their teeth were in such a bad state that they could not masticate it properly. Sound teeth are essential to good health and never more so than amid the hardships of active service. Men with bad teeth and therefore incapable of masticating army rations have always been rejected by army medical officers. It was therefore vital that there should be a dental system capable of undertaking elaborate and scientific dental work. The Canadian Army Dental Corps, co-operating with the C. A. M. C., not only put our men's teeth in good condition but maintained them in that condition.

In the field decayed and defective teeth were liable to cause more serious trouble than to the civilian at home. Cold and wet were almost certain to produce ulceration in teeth possessing dead nerves. Soldiers suffering from aching teeth or unable to masticate their food were of little use to the army until cured. The wastage therefore prevented by the million and a quarter dental operations performed by the Canadian Army Dental Corps was too obvious to require lengthy discussion.

There were dental clinics in all the Canadian hospitals in England. At Orpington Military Hospital there was a special clinic for men whose jaws had been badly shattered. The jaw was set and artificial teeth adjusted so that the patient's outlook on life was brightened by the prospect of escaping unsightly disfigurement and enjoying his meals once more.

AMBULANCES AND CLEARING STATIONS

Among the chiefs at British General Headquarters was the Director-General of Medical Services of the British army in the field. He and his deputy issued all the general orders affecting the health of the British army on the western front.

The casualty clearing stations and the mobile laboratories were under the D. M. S. of the army, who was responsible for the clearing of the hospitals by motor ambulance convoys and by hospital train.

There were normally three field ambulances to each division and one casualty clearing station.

The system which enabled a sick or wounded man to be removed from the front was simple enough. Each day the battalion medical officer, located in a dug-out in the trenches, perhaps, or in the cellar of a house not far behind the trenches, held a "sick parade" at his "regimental aid post." During a battle the wounded were collected by the regimental stretcher bearers and brought to the aid post.

Any soldier feeling unwell reported to the M. O. of the battalion who, if the trouble was a minor one, gave him some suitable medicine. If the man showed serious symptoms or was wounded he was sent back to the "advanced dressing station" which would probably be a mile or so behind the front line trenches, if possible in a house, and on a road accessible to motor ambulances.

If the man could walk he went back through the nearest communication trench; if unable to walk he was helped or carried back by the ambulance stretcher bearers to the dressing station.

Some of the dressing stations taking in wounded under shell fire were located in shell-proof dugouts. At many points light narrow-gauge railroads had been built which ran from the dressing stations right up to the trenches. On these railways little cars pushed by hand were used both for bringing out the wounded during a battle and for taking in food, water and other supplies.

The cases which accumulated at the advanced dressing station were given any further treatment required and evacuated by motor ambulance to the field ambulance proper.

From the field ambulance the sick and wounded were cleared by motor ambulance convoy to the casualty clearing station, or possibly in cases of tired or slightly shell-shocked officers and men, to the rest stations or convalescent hospitals, of which there were a number well behind the firing line.

At the casualty clearing station the men were checked over, their wounds re-dressed, operations performed, and all the work done necessary to enable the men to be passed on to the base hospital by hospital train or barge. These clearing stations, of which there were usually three or more in a town, could keep serious cases until it was deemed advisable to send them on.

While one clearing station was filling up and treating the patients, the other would be sending all possible treated cases down the line. From the base hospitals near the sea the men were forwarded as soon as advisable by hospital ships for distribution among the hospitals of England.

While a battle was in progress the men passed through the system so rapidly that those wounded one morning were often in a hospital in England the next morning.

The medical officer, of course, was attached to the battalion, and went everywhere with it; under him were the battalion stretcher bearers who gathered up the wounded. The advanced dressing station was merely an advanced section of the field ambulance which itself was divided into three sections, each of which could operate independently according to the nature of the country. Each ambulance was self-contained, having its own transport, and by using tents could work in areas without houses or other shelter.

The casualty clearing station, on the other hand, having an established capacity of nearly six hundred beds, had much heavier equipment and was not supposed to be a mobile unit, though it was capable of moving with the aid of its two lorries by making repeated trips. Many of the casualty clearing stations were located in huts which could be torn down and moved forward and rebuilt by the engineers and construction units.

There was also in each division a sanitary section composed of one officer and twenty-five men whose function it was to keep an eye on the sanitation of the divisional area, report failure on the part of units to observe the established sanitary regulations, see that the incinerators were operated, have new sources of drinking water tested, look after the bath-houses on occasion, search for cases of typhoid fever, etc., among the civilian population, and, in general, make itself as useful as possible.

The British army regulations are such that each officer and man must be a sanitarian and must not only observe the regulations but see that others do the same; the principle underlying this system being that "if each before his doorstep swept the village would be clean." Consequently it was not left to the sanitary section to clean up a divisional area, but rather to report those responsible for not keeping it clean. In this way every man was made a responsible party, for if the officers of any unit saw that the regulations were enforced by each man, the unit would be a sanitary one.

Naturally as the battalion M. O. was directly connected with the field ambulance to which he sent his cases, he was most interested in the efficiency of that unit. Since the field ambulances were under the direct supervision of the A. D. M. S. of the division, the latter, during a battle, was found visiting these to see that they were operating smoothly and to see whether enough motor ambulances, stretchers, supplies or other necessities were being provided.

At the same time the D. M. S. of the army would be found visiting the casualty clearing stations, and seeing that the evacuation of the wounded by train was working smoothly.

The hospital trains were specially fitted up with beds, kitchens and dispensaries, and with nurses and a medical officer in charge.

The hospital barges of the ordinary flat-bottomed, square-ended, Dutch type were wide enough to allow of two rows of beds with an aisle down the middle. The medical officer's surgery and bedroom were at one end of the barge, while the nurses' quarters were at the other.

In the British army there were specialists of renown in medicine and surgery who were supposed to supervise the medical and surgical work of a certain given area. They travelled about, investigating everything that was of particular interest, acted as advisers, and handed on to field units any special information that had been discovered at home or in the field. The consulting surgeons were usually to be found during a battle operating where there was the greatest need of skilled surgery.

Besides the sanitary officer of each division there was a sanitary officer for each army, and a chief sanitary officer for the whole expeditionary force. These were all in touch with the sanitary adviser at the base and the authorities in England. Since, under war conditions, new developments were always taking place in medicine and sanitation, the knowledge gained of practical value filtered through to the army by these channels as well as through the scientific journals.

WARDING OFF EPIDEMICS

Those killed in battle have in all previous wars constituted but a small fraction of the dead. Disease and pestilence have always been responsible for the vast majority of deaths in any of the great wars of history. In the present great war 6,396,504 men are known to have been killed. These figures are admittedly incomplete and the final total will probably indicate that approximately 10,000,000 men laid down their lives.

This is by no means the total loss due to the war, for millions of civilians have died in France, Belgium, Russia, Poland, Serbia, Germany and Austro-Hungry from over-work, starvation, diseases and Hun barbarities. Nor can the reckoning even be made of those who died from exposure and broken hearts. Every day at the present time thousands of helpless men, women and little children are dying somewhere in Europe and Asia from sheer starvation as a direct result of the devastations of war. In the years to come thousands of children who may survive the famine period, following the war, will die as a result of constitutional weaknesses brought on now by malnutrition.

Yet during the five years of war there have been no great epidemics of disease in the chief warring countries except in Serbia and Russia. Diseases, like typhus fever, typhoid fever, and cholera which devastated armies in former wars, practically played no part in reducing the strength of the armies. Science, which has done so much to make war more hideous, more brutal, and more devastating, through the development of new explosives, arms and poison gases, has succeeded in controlling the spread of almost every epidemic disease. Science, which has improved the methods of killing, has far more than offset the total losses by wonderful improvements in methods of saving life.

It is only when we see the results of an uncontrollable epidemic like influenza, which swept over the world at the close of the war, that we realize what we have been saved from in having been able to control most of the other epidemic diseases. Influenza is one of the few epidemic diseases which has, as yet, not been brought under control. Doubtless, like most other epidemic diseases, it will soon be curbed, but that time is not yet. It is only by comparisons that we realize what a terrible toll an uncontrollable disease can exact. It took four years of modern warfare to cause the deaths of 6,396,000 men at a total cost of $160,000,000,000, yet in the last three months of 1918, an epidemic of influenza, sweeping over the world, caused the death of about 8,000,000 people. The deaths in India alone have been estimated at 5,000,000; in the South Sea Islands people died in large numbers and had to be buried in piles.

In Mexico the deaths reached 450,000 and in the United States and Canada the total deaths must have been over 500,000. And all this in a period of three months.

With armies of millions of men crowded together in the field and with whole nations working at concert pitch to keep those armies fed and equipped, we can guess what would have happened had cholera, bubonic plague, typhoid fever, malaria, relapsing fever and typhus fever run riot as they did during former wars. The world would have been a great shambles and civilization would have been set back a century.

The history of war has always been a history of epidemics. The fact that in an army men are crowded together makes it easy for all communicable diseases, once introduced, to spread with great rapidity. And because soldiers are always associated with the civilian population, it means that such diseases are readily communicated from the army to the civilians, and from the civilians to the army. It is therefore apparent that during a war, disease, unless quickly checked, may run like wildfire through a country, and be disseminated far and wide by soldiers returning to and from their own homes or other distant places while on leave.

Advance is made in our knowledge of how diseases are spread and controlled, particularly through recent studies in bacteriology and immunity, have made it possible to keep communicable diseases in absolute subjection. The lack of epidemic disease in the army in the late war was one of the marvels of the age. This is particularly striking in view of our experiences in other recent wars. For example, in the Boer War the British losses through typhoid fever alone were 8,000 against 7,700 killed by bullets, shells and other agencies.

With some knowledge of sanitation and medicine it is easy to see how most epidemic diseases can be held in check. Put briefly, it means that the medical and sanitary organization must be such that the germs from an infected soldier are prevented from reaching any other soldier.

The methods employed were simple; the carrying out of the methods was oftentimes very difficult.

It was obviously essential to remove every suspected case of disease from the army as soon as possible after he had been diagnosed. This meant that the medical officers had to be always on the lookout for symptoms of fever rash or other signs of disease among their men. In the British army this was one of the most important factors in the control of epidemics. A man suspected of having any communicable disease was instantly placed under quarantine until the diagnosis had been confirmed, after which he was removed from the army area altogether as a possible focus of infection. The wonderful record of the British army in its freedom from contagious disease proved that the methods employed were absolutely sound.

This was practically the only way of stamping out diseases such as measles and scarlet fever, which cannot be diagnosed by bacteriological methods.

Great Britain was fortunate above all other nations in that the army sent over to France at the beginning consisted of regular troops, perfectly equipped from the medical standpoint as well as in every other way. Efforts had been made for years to remove typhoid carriers from the regular army and the soldiers had practically all been vaccinated against smallpox and inoculated against typhoid fever.

As each new division was sent into the field it was completely equipped with sanitary squad, casualty clearing stations, field ambulances, water carts, disinfectors and necessary medical stores. Consequently as the army grew and expanded into a huge force it was thoroughly equipped with the apparatus necessary for caring for the sick and wounded and had the benefit of the experience acquired by those already in the field. In this way the British army differed from all our European Allies who upon general mobilization found themselves woefully lacking in medical equipment and personnel.

Realizing that the medical equipment of the British was complete; that the army had been sent into the field free from communicable diseases; that it had been vaccinated and inoculated against two of the most dreaded diseases, smallpox and typhoid fever, and that every re-enforcement subsequent sent out had been carefully freed from suspicious cases of disease, it will be readily understood that the British army began under most auspicious circumstances, and that thereafter its freedom from contagious disease depended to a great extent on the preventive measures adopted.

It was impossible, however, to prevent our soldiers billeted in France from occasionally contracting communicable diseases from the French civilian population, and it was obvious that as there were from three to five per cent of the soldiers uninoculated against typhoid fever, we were bound to get some cases of typhoid.

Besides this, unless further precautions were taken, the army would be susceptible to disease such as cholera, dysentery and the like should there be cases of these in the war zone.

And, since there might be some "carriers" and undiagnosed cases of disease among soldiers and civilians excreting disease germs, additional means were necessary to destroy such germs before they could reach other soldiers. This was the place where sanitation and hygiene stepped in, and it was in these matters that the army of Great Britain was unexcelled by any army in the field.

As water supplies were liable to be contaminated, it was the rule to sterilize all water used for drinking purposes, either by boiling, by the use of bisulphate of soda, or by chlorine. The chlorine method, suggested by the writer in 1909, was the one in general use in the British army, as it was in all the other allied armies, and made it possible to sterilize a pail or a barrel of water if necessary right in the trenches. Small tablets of hypo-chlorite of lime, each one capable of sterilizing a pail of water, were also ordered and issued to the first Canadian division, and proved useful.

The great bulk of the water supply, however, was sterilized directly in the water carts by adding one or two spoonsful of the dry chloride of lime to the partly filled water cart, the mixing being done by the addition of the rest of the water and by agitation during the trip back to the place where the cart was stationed.

In addition to this, large mobile filter units, after plans which I had draughted in 1914 and officially suggested in 1915 after experience in the field, were built and issued to all the British armies. These mobile filters were capable of filtering and sterilizing large quantities of water and delivering it to water carts or into stand pipes, ready to drink. A check was kept on the efficiency of the filtration and sterilization by the mobile field laboratories. Similar filters of a larger capacity were placed in barges and proved very useful in France and particularly in the campaign in Mesopotamia.

Dysentery and kindred intestinal diseases in the early campaign in Mesopotamia had proved disastrous to the British army, greatly reduced its effective fighting strength and showed the necessity of such a method of protecting the army drinking water.

Dr. Hutchinson in his book, "The Doctor in War," says:

> The English sanitarians have devised one of the most perfect machines for transforming any kind of water into a clear, safe, drinkable beverage that I have ever seen. It is based upon the chlorination method and consists of a group of tanks with an engine and purifying system (of filters) mounted upon a large motor truck. . . . The result is so absolutely perfect as to give one almost an uncanny sense of magic. The first machine I saw was doing a special "stunt" test. It had dropped its intake into a pool of filthy, pea-soup-coloured, stagnant water, covered with green scum, which had collected between two refuse heaps at the back of an abandoned factory. From its discharge pipe was flowing into a large tank a steady stream of clear, sparkling, nice-tasting water. To look at the water in the filthy pool and the clear stream rushing and sparkling into the tank, gave one a positive shock.
>
> The motor weighs about three and a half tons, travels by its own power everywhere, can get under way inside of thirty minutes, and can transfer the vilest soup into pure drinking-water, at the rate of about a thousand gallons an hour. That is to say, one machine is capable of supplying an army of ten thousand men.

CHAPTER XIX

The Social Upheaval Following the War

The war shook society to its foundations, but the foundations remained solid because the foundations are in the hearts of humanity. It was a great thing to be alive during the period of national deliveries when new nations were being born and old illnesses were being cured. To the observer it was most interesting to see during the war period the levelling of social barriers, the evolution of industrial organizations, the tendency of capital to co-operate with labour. The conviction steadily grew among thinking people that there were no basic differences between workers of hand or brain, the differences were chiefly those due to the accident of environment and to education. In the trenches where all were on the same level, the chauffeur, the gardener, the carpenter showed up just as splendidly as the duke and the capitalist. And the truth became apparent as in the co-operation of the allied nations that co-operation was far better than antagonism.

Social forms and institutions eliminated for any period of time can never be wholly restored, and after the war it was inevitable that there should be greater demands from the workers, from those whose lives and property they had shown themselves willing to protect.

Consequently, just as the social and political structure had been shaken and modified by the war it was inevitable that the economic one should be even more disturbed. The war had created certain conditions in which men found greater comfort and ease through greater pay. They wanted that condition to continue and realized that only through the co-operation of labour, capital and the state in controlling the productive processes and eliminating the struggle between labour and capital could they obtain a greater share of the product of their labour.

A world-wide series of strikes began in which labour made very great demands, many of them equivalent to the virtual right to operate the industries.

Capital, already paying high wages, fought hard to retain what it had, though it was generally conceded that on account of the high cost of living workmen were not any better off than they had been with lower wages and when cost of living was low.

One of the results of the war was the immediate prominence gained by labour organizations. The workers had realized their power and were anxious to obtain all possible concessions while the time was opportune.

The International Labour Commission, consisting of fifteen members representing Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Cuba, Poland and Czechoslovakia, made public its report on April 3, 1919.

The report contained a draft convention creating a permanent organization for promoting international regulation of labour conditions, recommended an international labour conference and detailed labour terms to be inserted in the Peace Treaty. The preamble to the report read:

> Conditions of labour exist involving such injustice, hardship, and privation to large numbers of people as to produce unrest so great that the peace and harmony of the world is imperiled, and the improvement of those conditions is urgently requested, as, for example, by regulation of hours of work, including the establishment of a maximum working day and week, regulation of labour supply, prevention of unemployment, provision of an adequate living wage, protection of the worker against sickness, disease, and injury arising out of his employment, the protection of children and young persons and women, provision for old age and injury, protection of interests of workers when employed in other countries than their own, recognition of the principle of freedom of association, and organizing of technical, vocational, educational and other measures.

It was viewed as indispensable that a permanent labour organization to remedy industrial evils and injustice be established. The International Labour Conference is to meet at least once a year and to consist of four representatives from each state, including two representatives from the Government, one from the employers and one from the workers.

A clause incorporated in the report recognized the principle of self-determination in labour questions. This clause provided that "no recommendation or draft convention shall in any case be accepted or applied so as to diminish the protection already accorded to workers by the existing laws of any of the high contracting parties." The intention of this clause was stated to be the safeguarding of legislation already in effect in any country which might be regarded by that country as better for the workers than that recommended by the Labour Bureau. The Labour Bureau definitely decided that the findings of the bureau must be supported by moral suasion in countries where special problems exist, rather than by invoking any force which the League of Nations might offer. Recommendations embodied in the report included the following:

> Limitation was recommended of the hours of work in industry on the basis of eight hours per day and forty-eight hours per week, subject to exception in countries in which climatic conditions, imperfect development of industrial organization, or other special circumstances, render the industrial efficiency of the workers substantially different. The International Labour Conference was to recommend a basis approximately equivalent to the above for the adoption of such countries.

Great Britain was the first allied country after the war to experience labour unrest and a great reaction set in during which huge preparations were made for strikes. As usual in England, however, both parties were willing in the final showdown to compromise and no great strike occurred.

Great Britain's industrial crisis was adjusted without a strike by a conference between employers and employed at which far-reaching recommendations were agreed to and subsequently accepted by the Government to be enacted into law. It was the most serious situation that ever confronted the industries of the country, involving all the mining, engineering, machinist and transportation interests. Among the more important recommendations which the conference asked the Government to pledge themselves to carry out and which were assented to were the following:

> 1. The setting up of a permanent National Industrial Council of 400 representatives of employers and unions to advise the Government on industrial questions.
> 2. Enactment of a forty-eight-hour week, with certain necessary exceptions.
> 3. The establishment of national minimum wage rates.
> 4. Special payment for all overtime, where overtime is necessary.
> 5. Recognition of trade unions and employers' associations in industrial negotiations.

6. Unemployment pay should be more adequate, and should be extended to cover underemployment. Old-age pensions and sickness benefits should be more generous.

Unrest throughout the British Empire showed itself in the uprising in Egypt in which British soldiers and officials were killed. The Nationalist party showed that it had the backing of a large section of the community.

On the night of March 14th to 15th riots broke out in Cairo, Alexandria, and other Egyptian cities, while some formidable revolts took place at the towns up the Nile, where rail and telegraphic communication was broken. Much private and public property was destroyed. Investigation showed that the disturbances were due to the Egyptian Nationalist, or Independent, leaders acting on the instigation of agents of the Committee of Union and Progress, whose headquarters had been dispersed at Constantinople through the efforts of the Interallied Commission there. Many of these leaders were arrested, but not until several lives had been lost.

Serious disturbances also occurred in India and Afghanistan during April and May. Recent legislation incorporated in the Rowlatt acts and intended to combat seditious conspiracy was partially responsible for the trouble. Various riots occurred at Lahore, Bombay, Calcutta and elsewhere.

REVOLUTION IN GERMANY

Throughout Germany, even before the armistice, there were signs of revolution everywhere. The part that Bolshevism played in exciting the German people is now beginning to receive its due recognition. Dr. Cohin, Under-Secretary of State in the Department of Justice, has publicly admitted receiving money from the Bolshevist Ambassador to carry on propaganda work to further revolution in Germany.

General Hoffmann, former Chief of Staff of Germany's eastern army and signer of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, said in an interview that Germany was not beaten on the western front but by an upstart named Lenine. Making peace with Russia, he said, was suicide, though they did not know it at the time, for their victorious eastern army became infected with Bolshevism, while thousands of Bolshevists entered Germany and undermined its morale.

Towards the end of the Peace Conference, strikes and rumours of strikes, revolutions and rumors of revolutions poured from Germany. Hunger, unemployment, Bolshevist propaganda, delay in making peace and the breakdown of the national discipline, all played their part in bringing about disintegration in Germany.

In Berlin a serious attempt was made by the Spartacus group, under Dr. Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, to overthrow the Ebert Government and institute mob rule in Berlin. By a sudden stroke, designed to prevent the holding of the general election on January 19th, the Spartacans secured control of a number of the buildings in Berlin, including the postoffice and five newspaper offices. There was a great deal of street fighting in which a considerable number of people were killed, but the Ebert Government succeeded in maintaining the upper hand. Later on Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg were killed.

Serious riots occurred at Frankfort-on-the-Main on March 31st. A general strike occurred at Stuttgart of workers followed by one of the bourgeoise. Other strikes occurred in Berlin, Kastrop, Dortmend and elsewhere. In Bavaria the socialist government was having its own troubles, for Spartacans demanded its removal and the establishment of unbridled communism. On April 7th Bavaria was proclaimed a Soviet Republic by the Revolutionary Central Council at Munich, and everything was declared the property of the community.

The Nationalist Government of Berlin refused to recognize any but the Hoffmann Government of Bavaria and the latter carried on. At Munich the People's Commissioners Government was overthrown by the Communists and a new Central Council of ten was appointed, presided over by a bricklayer. At Wurzburg the second army declared for the Hoffmann Government and attacked the communists.

In Brunswick, Eichhorn, formerly the Chief of Police of Berlin, was a leading spirit among the Spartacans. Danzig was in the depths of an industrial strike with the object of affiliating with Russia. In Saxony the War Minister was thrown into the Elbe and shot, as he attempted to swim ashore, by wounded soldier patients.

The extraordinary situation was seen of three governments—the Constitutional Hoffmann Government, the Soviet and Communist governments—contesting for Munich over a period of several days.

SECOND REVOLUTION IN HUNGARY

The Provisional Government of the Hungarian Republic, of which Count Karolyi was President, was overturned on Friday, March 21, 1919, by the Communist revolutionary element at Budapest under Russian Bolshevist leadership. President Karolyi handed over the reins of power to the Soviet leaders without a struggle, ascribing his act to the Allies' treatment of Hungary after the armistice.

The following view of the revolution and its personnel was given by Dr. Constantine Brown, a British correspondent, who had just returned from investigating conditions in Hungary and other East European countries, and who wrote on April 9th:

"What has happened is that, despairing of finding any other remedy, Karolyi turned Bolshevist in the hope of preserving his country intact. He connived at revolution, while to the outward Entente world he professed himself powerless to resist it. In Bela Kun, the present Foreign Commissary of the Hungarian Soviet Republic, and in Dr. Rakovsky, the renegade Rumanian and one-time German agent, he found two admirable accomplices. These are the two men with whom General Smuts discussed the basis of agreement in Budapest.

"Bela Kun is a man of education and a certain culture, and among the zealots who profess the anarchistic creed of Lenine and Trotzky would be classed as a moderate. His political outlook at present does not take him beyond the confines of Hungary. He proclaims that at present, as far as he is personally concerned, the rest of the world may be well content if he achieves by his own peculiar methods the complete political and social liberation of Hungary.

"Rakovsky, on the other hand, dreams of and works for the complete Soviet subjugation of Southeastern and Western Europe. He is pledged to carry the banner of Bolshevism in triumph from the Transylvania Alps to the Danube delta, and from Budapest to Paris. Radovsky was always a noted political firebrand and is unquestionably a whole-hogger. Born a Bulgarian, he became violently anti-Bulgarian when Bulgaria was beaten in the Balkan war and his native town passed under the Rumanian flag.

"Arrested as a German spy, he was rescued from prison in Rumania by Russian revolutionary soldiers. Then he engineered the plot for removing the Rumanian King and his consort. It failed, so Rakovsky slipped over the Rumanian frontier and became Bolshevist High Commissionery at Odessa, and the Russian Soviet Government afterward appointed him its Minister to Hungary."

COMMUNIST PROCLAMATIONS

The new Government issued the following proclamation on March 22d:

> The proletariat of Hungary from today has taken all power in its own hands. By the decision of the Paris Conference to occupy Hungary, the provisioning of revolutionary Hungary becomes utterly impossible. Under these circumstances the sole means open for the Hungarian Government is a dictatorship of the proletariat.
>
> Legislative, executive and judicial authority will be exercised by a dictatorship of the Workers', Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils. The Revolutionary Government Council will begin forthwith work for the realization of communist socialism.
>
> The council decrees the socialization of large estates, mines, big industries, banks and transport lines, declares complete solidarity with the Russian Soviet Government, and offers to contract an armed alliance with the proletariat of Russia.

A further proclamation, sent out by the new Government by wireless, invited the workmen and peasants of Bohemia, Rumania, Serbia and Croatia to form an armed alliance against the aristocracy, landowners and dynasties, and urged the workmen of Austria and Germany to follow the lead of Hungary in breaking off relations with the Paris Peace Conference.

Martial law was proclaimed. A fine of 5,000 crowns was fixed for the sale of alcoholic liquor and 10,000 crowns for drinking it. It was decided to abolish all titles of rank, to separate the church from the state, to dismiss all commissioners of the Karolyi Government and to invite Workmen's Councils to select directorates of four members each to replace them.

MISSION OF GENERAL SMUTS

The Entente Powers in session at Paris decided to send General Jan Christian Smuts to Budapest with power to negotiate a new armistice and to reach an understanding, if possible, with the new Hungarian Government. General Smuts left Paris on April 2d after a consultation with the Council of Four, and on April 4th made certain proposals.

The Government replied to General Smuts, thanking him for his civility, but declaring that the conditions presented were inacceptable, except as an order to those who might be inclined to assume the Government of the country on such terms.

Dr. Benes, Foreign Minister of Czecho-Slovakia, issued the following statement in the London *Times:*

> The complete "Bolshevization" of Central Europe may be regarded as a real menace. At Berlin, in Saxony, and in Bavaria Spartacism is very dangerous. At Budapest Magyar Bolshevism has triumphed completely; at Vienna there is already a demand for imitation of Hungary. In my opinion Poland also will not entirely escape. Thus, bit by bit, Bohemia, the chief industrial country of Central Europe, is becoming threatened with complete isolation from Western Europe and with the loss of all chance of being revictualed by the Allies. Our working classes are numerous, and if they are not fed it is very probable that they might fall a prey to Bolshevism. That is the present situation of my country
>
> The national and social side of this Bolshevist movement is more interesting still. Those responsible for this war, the Germans, Austrians and Magyars, see today what the Peace Conference is preparing, and they see that its decisions will inevitably hit those who provoked the world war. Austria-Hungary and Turkey will be broken up and their oppressed peoples will be liberated. From the financial and economic point of view the authors of the war will be obliged to repair the damage they have caused. Thus justice overtakes them.
>
> To escape these consequences they cling to Bolshevism for salvation. They tell themselves they have nothing to lose, either from the territorial or the social point of view, because they are already ruined politically and economically. Hungary is the most striking example of this policy. Some time back Count Karolyi himself threatened the Allies that Hungary would submit to a Bolshevist régime if her territory were not left intact. Today she is executing this threat. She is blackmailing, as the Magyars have always done. It is clearly impossible to give way to this threat, more especially since tomorrow Germany will try to follow Hungary's example when she is called upon to sign the preliminary peace treaty.

EVENTS IN AUSTRIA

The exile of the house of Hapsburg-Lothringens, which had ruled for a thousand years was an occurrence full of significance, for with it went all the rights and privileges of the royal family forever, together with eternal banishment.

Bolshevism did not seem to gain ground in German Austria in spite of desperate efforts of the new Soviet Republic in Hungary and the desperate food conditions prevailing in the country itself. Even the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils in Vienna decided against a Soviet Government in favour of a Socialist Republic.

The expulsion of the Hungarian agitators at the request of the Entente, the announcement that food supplies would be sent forthwith, and the decision of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils prevented a possible outbreak of Bolshevism.

BOLSHEVISM IN CANADA

When the armistice was signed the social and industrial organzations of the world appeared to have suddenly become dislocated. It was largely the result of the sudden reappearance of numberless reforms, which had been under consideration before the war, now demanding consideration and, backed up by labour, which realized its full strength and the power of its organization. Fear stalked openly through the world. Bolshevist propaganda had been sown broadcast over the face of the earth. Everywhere there was labour unrest, strikes and dissatisfaction. At first glance it appeared as though discharged soldiers were responsible for the trouble, but this was only the impression of those who spoke without investigation. The returned soldier had very clear ideas as to the necessity for the reorganization of society but his methods were not anarchistic. He believed in employing legal methods and bringing pressure to bear on governments, of which he had now absolutely no fear, in order to obtain legitimate reforms.

The people originally responsible for the spread of Bolshevist literature were foreigners and at first largely Russian. In Canada the press was full of references to troubles arising out of the activities of adherents to the Bolshevist idea. Careful investigation showed that the tentacles of Bolshevist propaganda were extending to the four quarters of the earth and that it had set itself the task of tearing to pieces the very fabric of modern life in every country under the sun.

In Canada a bold, systematic and dangerous effort was made to taint the community from coast to coast with the poisonous philosophy. Dominion Order in Council of October 1, 1918, had placed the following societies in Canada under the ban:

Industrial Workers of the World,
Russian Social Democratic Party,
Russian Revolutionary Group,
Russian Social Revolutionists,
Russian Workers' Union,
Ukrainian Revolutionary Group,
Ukrainian Social Democratic Party,
Social Democratic Party,
Social Labour Party,
Group of Social Democrats of Bolsheviki,
Group of Social Democrats of Anarchists,
Workers' International Industrial Union,
Chinese Nationalist League,
Chinese Labour Association.

It was learned that specimens of all these organizations existed in Canada. It is hard to say where innocence ends and guilt begins in any social organization.

FAMINE AND ANARCHY

Mr. Hoover, who had been placed in charge of the feeding of the enemy nations, came to the conclusion, after investigation, that the spread of Bolshevism into Germany was due to hunger and could be prevented by a food barrage. This view of the subject was widely accepted in the United States. President Wilson, in urging the appropriation of $100,000,000 for food relief in Europe, said:

"Food relief is now the key to the whole European situation and to the solution of peace. Bolshevism is steadily advancing westward and poisoning Germany. It cannot be stopped by force, but it can be stopped by food."

An American correspondent in Paris wired: "There is no stronger ally of Bolshevism than starvation. Food, work and the prospect of normal social conditions are the prophylactic . . . anarchy and Bolshevism are the natural sequence of famine, disease and despair."

There is little doubt that famine leads to social anarchy, but it must be remembered that anarchists flourish in the United States in labour organizations, which are composed of well-paid workers. It is not lack of food that makes all men rebellious, but rather the feeling that they are the catspaw of another class which by their labour they make wealthy. The feeling of the worker that he is being exploited and has no say, share or partnership in the system for which he toils and whose success he makes possible is at the root of much of labour trouble; it is the sense of injustice under which he smarts. Back of it all is the feeling that his earning power is not assured and that, at the whim of his employer or through some industrial condition or accident, he may be thrown out of work and his income cut off with the ensuing consequences of suffering and privation in his family.

A new feeling, tremendously fostered and forwarded by the war, had come into being. The worker had thoroughly realized his power through organization. He had been appealed to, deferred to and repeatedly told that he was the backbone of the nation, that but for him the Allies would have gone under. He knew that it was true. Women and men alike in all classes of society had slaved to make the soldier worker happy and comfortable. Everybody united in giving freely of their time and money to forward the great cause in which the worker was the chief participant.

With the cessation of war a great fear came upon the workers that their period of comfort had come to an end. During the war there had been plenty of work and everybody had made good wages, for which, it is true, they had often worked long hours. For the first time millions of people had been able to realize the comfort that could be obtained through the possession of a full purse. They dreaded going back to the lower wage and the periods of out-of-work.

It was natural then that they should band themselves together solidly to demand that pre-war conditions should never again obtain. They demanded war wages or better. They asked for shorter hours so that work would be spread over a longer period and eliminate sterile areas of idleness. They demanded the nationalization of coal mines, railroads and other public utilities, believing this to be both to their own best interest and that of the state, for company profits would thereby be eliminated and higher wages made possible to employees.

The strikers in Great Britain were not Bolshevists, though their agents and propaganda had doubtless something to do with fomenting agitations during the transition period from war to peace.

The origin of Bolshevism, as would be expected, is German, The stock phrase, "the dictatorship of the proletariat,"—or the absolute control of political power by the working classes,—is simply German socialism. Hatred of the bourgeoise, which we are accustomed to think of as peculiarly Russian, is part of the Marxian theory.

Bolshevism is merely another name for autocracy.

The fact that the rank and file is composed largely of the working classes obscures this fact. Lenine is as great an enemy of democracy as the Czar whom his followers murdered, and Trotzky has shown that he is a far greater danger to liberty than Hindenburg or Emperor Wilhelm. The tyranny of Bolshevism is far more terrible and more unscrupulous than the autocracy which it has displaced.

The very fact that the Bolshevist reformers believe in the dictatorship of the workers indicates the non-democratic nature of the programme. Proletariat means the poorest element among the city working classes, the men with no property and no capital except their hands.

It is their theory that as the sole creators of wealth they should exclusively control all political power. It is purely a class movement and is not endorsed by peasants who possess land of their own.

One simple fact will illustrate the argument that Bolshevism is a form of autocracy. When the Bolshevists got control in Russia they held an election. The election went against them so they dispersed the ensuing convention and carried on without reference to the will of the people at large. The Emperor Nicholas in his palmiest days could not excel that act of autocracy.

During the Peace Conference it was proposed that the Allies should invite Russian representatives to meet in a conference with them in an endeavour to straighten out the situation. The French Government objected and officially stated its opinion that Bolshevism was a permanent danger to peace and civilization. It also held that the Government of the Soviet was at war with the

Allies. The French Government felt justified in its attitude because in fighting against Bolshevism it felt it was endeavouring to eradicate a system based on nothing but disorder and crime. Besides, Russia owed France huge sums, and the Bolshevists proposed to repudiate the debt contracted by the Czarist Government.

The French Government stated that Bolshevism was the tyranny of a very small clique over the bulk of the nation. Therefore, by fighting Bolshevism they would be protecting Russia against a minority which also meant protecting civilization from the activity of Bolshevist propagandists throughout Europe who had already endeavoured to promote anarchy in neutral countries, such as Sweden, Spain and Switzerland.

In viewing such portents as the strikes throughout the world, the flying of red flags, the Spartacan revolts in Germany, the Mooney and Billings case in America, and labour demands in England, it would appear as though the present social order was about to undergo a thorough overhauling. Recognizing the trend of affairs many people had been engaged in elaborating and suggesting schemes which would satisfy the situation. Labour bodies and federations have drawn up and suggested reconstruction programmes which almost uniformly demand a voice and vote in industry, the establishment of a minimum wage scale, the placing of public utilities under Government control, progressively increased taxes of incomes, the discouraging of unused land, the prohibition of child labour, and the development of natural resources by the Government.

CHAPTER XX

The Year of Victory

The great war ended on November 11, 1918, for, although the peace treaties had yet to be made, the terms of the armistice made it impossible for the Central Powers to resume hostilities. Desultory fighting continued at the end of the year in Russia, where small allied forces in the west and large Japanese forces in the far east had been forced to intervene by reason of the excesses of the Bolshevik government. In Transylvania and Galicia also the rival racial claims of Poles, Ruthenians, Ukrainians and Magyars provoked fresh hostilities, which, in addition to the spread of the revolutionary movement across Central Europe, after the Imperial Powers had collapsed, delayed a complete restoration of peace conditions.

The various armistices which brought the main fighting to a conclusion were granted in the following order:

Bulgaria, September 29th.
Turkey, October 30th.
Austria-Hungary, November 3d.
Germany, November 11th.

Each armistice imposed terms virtually those of unconditional surrender and, except in the case of Turkey, where the Enver Pasha Government had already disappeared, the overthrow of the monarchs of the defeated nations followed.

The principal abdications of the war were:

Czar Nicholas II of Russia, March 14, 1917.
King Constantine of Greece, June 11, 1917.
King Ferdinand of Bulgaria, October 6, 1918.
King Boris of Bulgaria, October 31, 1918.
Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany, November 10, 1918.
Kaiser Karl I of Austria, November 13, 1918.

The new Czecho-Slovak Republic, which had declared its independence on October 21st, was recognized by the Allies and became another belligerent.

Photo from Press Illustrating Service.

THE KIEL CANAL

German battleship *Prince Henry* passing through the canal connecting Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, which served as an outlet to the North Sea or the Baltic. This waterway was internationalized under the Peace Treaty.

The German menace to the Allies and the world never looked more terrible than in the first half of 1918 and its collapse within five months came with a most dramatic suddenness. This may be best visualized by the statement of a few facts.

March 21st	Final German offensive began in France.
“ 23d	Paris bombarded by long-range gun.
April 14th	Appointment of Marshal Foch as Allied Commander-in-Chief.
May 18th	First daylight air raid on Cologne.
“ 30th	German armies reached the Marne.
June 17-20th	Austrian offensive against Italy failed.
July 18th	Franco-British counter-offensive began on the Marne.
September 13th	Americans wipe out St. Mihiel salient.
“ 16th	Allied offensive in Serbia began.
“ 19th	General Allenby's main offensive in Palestine began.
“ 22d	Turkish armies destroyed on Armageddon Plain.
“ 29th	All Flanders Ridges recaptured.
October 9th	Hindenburg line smashed; Cambrai taken.
“ 17th	Lille captured.
“ 20th	Belgian coast freed from German occupation.
November 1st	Serbians re-enter Belgrade.
“ 22d	King Albert re-enters Brussels.
“ 29th	Montenegro united with Serbia.
December 1st	British troops entered German territory.
“ 1st	King Ferdinand of Rumania re-entered Bucharest.
“ 13th	President Wilson landed in France.

Among other things, the war and the armistice have resulted in: The breaking up of the German and Austrian empires into a number of states, at present republican;

The restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France;

The reappearance, as a nation, of Poland;

The setting-up of a new Republic of Czecho-Slovakia and the enlargement of Serbia by the inclusion of Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina;

The union of the unredeemed territories to Italy.

The War at a Glance

1914

June 28—Assassinations of Archduke and Archduchess of Austria.
July 23—Austrian Note to Serbia.
July 28—Austria declares war on Serbia.
Aug. 1—Germany declares war on Russia.
Aug. 3—Germany declares war on France and Belgium.
Aug. 4—England declares war on Germany. Canadian government decides to send an expeditionary force to Europe.
Aug. 6—Austria declares war on Russia. England lands troops in France.
Aug. 9—Serbia declares war on Germany.
Aug. 11—France declares war on Austria.
Aug. 12—England declares war on Austria.
Aug. 15—Canadian volunteers, enough for a division, called for (25,000). Enough for two divisions respond.
Aug. 20—Brussels abandoned. Allied retreat begins.
Aug. 23—Japan declares war on Germany.
Aug. 26—Germans burn Louvain.
Aug. 28—Battle of Helgoland.
Aug. 31—Battle of Tannenburg.
Sept. 7—Battle of Marne begins.
Sept. 15—Canadians mobilized at Valcartier, Quebec.
Oct. 3—First Canadian Division, in 33 transports, sail for Europe.
Oct. 9—Germans capture Antwerp.
Oct. 14—Canadian troops reach Plymouth.
Oct. 24—Germans driven out of Russia.
Oct. 30—Russia declares war on Turkey.
Nov. 1—Battle of Coronel.
Nov. 5—Britain declares war on Turkey.
Dec. 2—Belgrade evacuated.
Dec. 8—Battle of Falkland Islands.
Dec. 16—Bombardment of Hartlepool, Scarborough and Whitby.

1915

Jan. 2—Russian invasion of **Hungary** begins.
Jan. 24—Battle of Dogger Bank.
Feb. 4—Germany proclaims British waters a war zone.
Feb. 10—Battle of Masurian Lakes.
Feb. 19—Anglo-French bombardment of Dardanelles forts begins.
Mar. 10—Battle of Neuve Chapelle.
Mar. 14—First Canadian unit, "The Princess Patricia's Light Infantry," in battle at St. Eloi.
Mar. 18—*Irresistible, Ocean* and *Bouvet* sunk in Dardanelles.
Mar. 22—Austrians capture Przemysl.
Mar. 23—Allied troops landed at Gallipoli.
April 22—Canadians withstand first poison gas attack launched by Germans at second battle of Ypres. Sir John French declared that the Canadians "saved the situation" at Langemarck and St. Julien.
May 7—*Lusitania* sunk.
May 16—Canadians participate in the Battle of Festubert, which lasted 10 days.
May 23—Italy declares war on Austria.
June 3—Russians defeated at Przemysl.
June 14—Russians lose 16,500 prisoners.
June 15—First Canadian Brigade in sanguinary battle of Givenchy.
June 22—Russians evacuate Lemberg.
Aug. 4—Germans capture Warsaw.
Aug. 13—*Royal Edward* sunk.
Aug. 21—Italy declares war on Turkey.
Aug. 25—Germans capture Brest-Litovsk.
Sept. 23—Canadians in great allied offensive at Loos.
Sept. 25—Allies start Champagne drive.
Oct. 6—Allies land at Salonika.
Oct. 12—Edith Cavell shot.
Oct. 14—Bulgaria declares war on Serbia.
Oct. 15-19—Italy, France, England and Russia declare war on Bulgaria.
Nov. 1—Canadians begin series of trench raids which had a demoralizing effect on the enemy.
Dec. 1—British army retreat to Kut-el-Amara.
Dec. 19—Allied troops begin evacuation of Gallipoli.

1916

Jan. 8—Last Gallipoli positions evacuated.
Feb. 14—All single men in Britain called to colors.
Feb. 21—Germans begin attack on Verdun.
Mar. 9-16—Germany and Austria declare war on Portugal.
April 13-19—The battle of the Craters fought by Canadians; one of the greatest feats of endurance in the war.
April 24—Irish revolt begins.
April 29—British troops at Kut-el-Amara surrender.
May 31—Battle of Jutland.
June 2—Canadians under intense bombardment at Sanctuary Wood.
June 3-13—Canadians recapture lost ground in the battle of Hooge.
June 5—Kitchener and staff drowned.
June 11—Great Russian victory over Austrians.
July 1—First allied Somme drive begins.

1916—*Continued*

July 28—Captain Fryatt shot.
Aug. 27—Rumania declares war on Austria.
Sept. 15—Courcelette captured by Second Canadian Division in the great Somme offensive.
Sept. 26—Zollern Redoubt and Hessian Trench systems taken by Canadians.
Oct. 18—German submarine raid off New York.
Oct. 21—Fourth Canadian Division capture two-thirds of Regina Trench.
Oct. 22—Constanza, Rumania, captured.
Nov. 10—Remainder of Regina Trench and all of Desire Trench captured and consolidated by Fourth Canadian Division.
Dec. 12—First German peace proposal.

1917

Jan. 31—Germany announces unrestricted submarine sinkings in prescribed zone.
Feb. 3—United States sever diplomatic relations with Germany.
Feb. 24—British recapture Kut-el-Amara.
Mar. 11—British capture Bagdad.
Mar. 14—Russian revolution.
April 6—United States declares war on Germany.
April 9—Canadians take Vimy Ridge.
April 16—French victory in Champagne.
May 3—Fresnoy taken by Canadians.
May 12—British capture a mile of the Hindenburg line between Fontaine and Bullecourt.
May 14—Italians cross the Isonzo.
May 18—United States first draft called up.
June 27—First United States forces arrive in France.
Aug. 1—Pope appeals for peace.
Aug. 2—General Russian retreat begins.
Aug. 15–21—First and Second Canadian Divisions sweep over Hill 70 and across the Lens-La Bassee road. Canadian Corps lose 9,000 men in the battle of Lens and Hill 70.
Sept. 3—Germans capture Riga.
Sept. 16—Kerensky declares Russia a republic.
Oct. 4—British Flanders drive begins.
Oct. 18–25—Passchendaele taken by Canadians after terrific fighting. This was the most terrible and tragic battle that the Canadian Corps was to experience.
Oct. 25—Italian retreat begins.
Nov. 6—Passchendaele Ridge captured.
Nov. 8—Bolsheviki seize Russian Government.
Nov. 21—British drive on Cambrai begins.
Dec. 3—Negotiations for Brest-Litovsk treaty begins.
Dec. 6—Halifax disaster.
Dec. 10—British capture Jerusalem.
Dec. 11—United States declares war on Austria-Hungary.

1918

Feb. 7—*Tuscania* sunk.
Mar. 2—Russia out of the war. Bolsheviki sign peace treaty with Germany at Brest-Litovsk.
Mar. 14—German troops occupy Odessa.
Mar. 21—Germans begin drive in Picardy.
Mar. 23—First Canadian motor machine-gun brigade moves on orders to re-enforce the British Fifth Army in a sector east of Amiens. In 19 days this unit fought a continuous action north and south of the Somme against heavy odds.
Mar. 28—The Fourth Canadian Division organize a relief brigade to support the hard-pressed British Fifty-sixth Division at St. Eloi.
Mar. 28—Marshal Foch named Generalissimo.
April 1—Germans' new drive halted before Amiens.
April 8—The Canadian troops increase their frontage held from 13,000 to 22,000 yards. In the Battle of Lys in order to aid British divisions, it increased its frontage to 29,000 yards rendering material service by releasing other troops for re-enforcements.
April 23—British naval raid on Zeebrugge.
April 26—Germans capture Kemmel Hill.
May 1—By this time the Canadians held a total front of about 20 miles out of the front of 100 miles held by the whole British army.
May 27—Germans gain important victory between Soissons and Rheims.
June 19–23—Italians throw Austrians back across Piave.
July 10—Franco-British campaign in Albania commences.
July 15—Canadians begin minor operations of increasing magnitude against the enemy.
July 16—Ex-Czar of Russia executed.
July 18—Foch begins drive on Soissons-Rheims salient.
Aug. 5—German armies reach Vesle River in retreat.
Aug. 8—Canadian troops co-operate in drive above Montdidier.
Aug. 9—Forming the spearhead of the British army, the Canadians advance for a total depth of 15 miles, taking 21 Picardy villages.
Aug. 14—Elmslie appointed command Canadian Siberian battalion.
Aug. 17—Germans retreat beyond Albert.
Aug. 21—British gain ten miles beyond Arras.
Aug. 22—The Canadians on this date completed their operations on the Amiens front, having defeated ten German divisions. They captured 9,131 prisoners, 190 guns, and 1,000 machine guns and trench mortars and cleared the Germans out of 67 square miles of territory, liberating 27 towns and villages.

1918—*Continued*

Aug. 26—Hindenburg line pierced.

Aug. 27—Second Canadian Division cross the Sensee and capture Cherisy and Vis-en-Artois. The Third Division took Vert and Sart Woods and the outskirts of four villages.

Aug. 28—Part of the Fresnes-Rouvroy line captured by Third Canadian Division.

Aug. 29—French take Noyon.

Aug. 30—First Canadian Division captures remainder of Fresnes-Rouvroy line and Upton Wood.

Aug. 31—Bailleul captured.

Sept. 1–5—Germans retreat in Flanders, abandoning Kemmel.

Sept. 2—Canadians launch major operation against the Drocourt-Queant switch line and fight their way through this powerful system of fortifications, taking 5,000 prisoners.

Sept. 12—Ex-Czarina of Russia and daughters reported murdered.

Sept. 12—Americans destroy St. Mihiel salient.

Sept. 15—Austria asks for peace discussion.

Sept. 16—Wilson refuses Austria's suggestion.

Sept. 17—Allies begin Balkan drive.

Sept. 26—Bulgaria asks for armistice.

Sept. 27—All the high ground north of Bourlon Wood captured by Canadians.

Sept. 29—Douai-Cambrai railway cut by Canadians, beginning the envelopment of Cambrai.

Sept. 30—Bulgarian armistice officially confirmed. Bulgaria accepts Allies' terms.

Oct. 1—Peace Demonstrations in Berlin.

Oct. 3—La Bassee captured by Allies.

Oct. 5—Chancellor Maximilian announces in Reichstag that he has asked President Wilson to forward to Allies Germany's plea for peace.

Oct. 7—Great gains by Allies on Western Front.

Oct. 8—Wilson asks for evidences of German good faith.

Oct. 8—Canal du Nord crossed by Canadians, who push their patrols into Cambrai.

Oct. 10—Battle of Cambrai ends. Since August 26 the Canadians advanced 23 miles, defeating 31 German divisions established in strong positions, and taking 18,585 prisoners.

Oct. 11—German retreat on Western Front continues.

Oct. 11—Germany announces Wilson's terms will be accepted.

Oct. 14—Socialist Congress at Munich demands Kaiser's abdication.

Oct. 15—British enter suburbs of Lille.

Oct. 16—Bruges and Zeebrugge fall.

Oct. 18—Canadians enter Doual.

Oct. 20—Germany orders U-boat warfare on passenger ships stopped.

Oct. 23—Wilson tells Germany he has transmitted her peace plea to Allies.

Oct. 25—Anglo-Italian drive begins.

Oct. 28—Turkey asks separate peace.

Oct. 30—Austria asks armistice.

Oct. 31—Turkish armistice begins. Dardanelles opened.

Nov. 1—Canadians participate in the capture of Valenciennes.

Nov. 1—Austrian revolt begins.

Nov. 2—10,000 Austrians captured.

Nov. 3—Austrian armistice terms announced.

Nov. 5—Lloyd George announces Germany must apply to Foch for peace.

Nov. 6—German armistice mission leaves Berlin for Western Front.

Nov. 7—Unconfirmed report Germany has accepted armistice terms.

Nov. 8—German mission given allied terms with 72 hours to consider.

Nov. 10—Kaiser flees to Holland.

Nov. 11—Germany accepts Allies' armistice terms. Canadians occupy Mons, thus ending the war at the point where the actual hostilities against the British army began.

Nov. 11—Germany accepts Allies' armistice terms.

Nov. 14—Occupation of Alsace begun.

Nov. 16—Informal meetings of allied peace representatives begin.

Nov. 18—Allied forces begin march into Germany. First meeting between British and German naval representatives to discuss German naval surrender. French enter Metz.

Nov. 19—Twenty German submarines surrender. King of Belgium enters Antwerp.

Nov. 20—First instalment of German Grand Fleet consisting of 71 vessels surrendered.

Nov. 21—King of Belgium enters Brussels.

Nov. 24—French enter Constantinople.

Nov. 25—Allied Fleet enters Black Sea.

Nov. 30—Spartacus group seizes German wireless.

Dec. 3—Allies threaten occupation of Germany if full armistice terms are not complied with.

Dec. 19—Great welcome to British generals in London.

Dec. 26—Allies announce no extensive military occupation in Russia.

1919

April 25—First German peace delegates reach Versailles.

May 7—Peace Treaty handed to Germans.

June 16—Germans receive revised Peace Treaty.

June 28—Germans and Allies sign Peace Treaty at Versailles.

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